



Role centrality, gender role ideology and work-family conflict among working fathers in South Africa.

JOSH GELB
GLBJOS001

A dissertation submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the award of the
Degree of Master of Humanities in Organisational Psychology

Faculty of Humanities
University of Cape Town
2014

COMPULSORY DECLARATION:

This work has not been previously submitted in whole, or in part, for the award of any degree. It is my own work. Each significant contribution to, and quotation in, this dissertation from the work, or works of other people has been attributed, and has been cited and referenced.

Signature:

Date:

The copyright of this thesis vests in the author. No quotation from it or information derived from it is to be published without full acknowledgement of the source. The thesis is to be used for private study or non-commercial research purposes only.

Published by the University of Cape Town (UCT) in terms of the non-exclusive license granted to UCT by the author.

Abstract

This study examined role centrality and gender role ideology as antecedents of work-family conflict amongst white-collar working fathers in South Africa ($N = 369$). Cross-sectional, self-report survey data was collected. Exploratory factor analysis supported the bi-directional nature of work-family conflict. Interestingly, work and family role centrality did not explain a significant variance in work-family conflict, however hierarchical multiple regression analysis confirmed that when family centrality interacted with gender role ideology a significant variance of both family-to-work conflict and work-to-family conflict was explained. Moreover supporting a cross-domain relationship between family centrality and work-to-family conflict when interacting with gender role ideology. In the absence of variables interacting with gender role ideology, no significant relationship was found between role centrality and work-family conflict. Theoretical contributions and managerial implications are discussed.

Keywords: Work-family conflict, role centrality, gender role ideology, fathers, South Africa.

Acknowledgements

The financial assistance of the University of Cape Town postgraduate funding department is hereby acknowledged. Opinions expressed and conclusions arrived at, are those of the author and are not necessarily to be attributed to the University of Cape Town.

To my primary supervisor, Dr Ameeta Jaga and co-supervisor Professor Jeffrey Bagrain thank you for guiding and encouraging me through this process, and offering extensive feedback, the learning has been profound.

To the participating organisations for allowing access to their employees, I would like to extend my appreciation to the employees for completing the questionnaires and in doing so contributed to my research findings.

Lastly thank you to my family, friends and fellow students for all the love, support and encouragement.

Table of Contents

Abstract	ii
Acknowledgements	iii
List of Tables	vii
List of Figures	viii
List of Appendices	ix
Introduction	1
The South African Context	2
Aims of the Research	4
Research Question	5
Significance of Study	5
Structure of the Dissertation	5
Literature Review	7
Theoretical Framework of Work-Family Conflict	7
Role stress theory.	7
The nature of work-family conflict.	11
Bi-directionality of work-family conflict.	11
Dimensionality of work-family conflict.	12
Consequences of work-family conflict.	13
Antecedents of work-family conflict.	13
Role Centrality	14
Defining role centrality.	14
Role centrality and work-family conflict.	17
Role centrality and work-to-family conflict.	18
Role centrality and family-to-work conflict.	19
Role centrality and cross-domain relations.	19
The Moderating Effect of Gender Role Ideology on the Relationship between Role Centrality and Work-family Conflict	20
Theoretical Framework of Gender Role Ideology	26
Gender role hypothesis.	26
Social role theory.	26
Border theory.	27
Gender Role Ideology and Work-Family Conflict	28

Research Objectives and Propositions	33
Propositions.....	34
Method	35
Research Design.....	35
Procedure	35
Participants.....	37
Measures	38
Work-family conflict.	38
Role centrality.....	39
Gender role ideology.....	39
Control variables.....	40
Statistical Procedures	40
Results.....	43
Psychometric Properties of Variables.....	43
Role centrality scale.....	43
Gender role ideology scale.....	44
Work-family conflict scale.	45
Descriptive statistics	46
Correlation analysis	47
Inter-correlations with work-to-family conflict and family-to-work conflict.....	48
Multiple regression analysis	48
Role centrality as an antecedent of family-to-work conflict.....	49
Role centrality as an antecedent of work-to-family conflict.....	51
Final notes	54
Discussion	56
Psychometric Properties and Portability of Scales	56
Levels of Self-reported Work-Family Conflict among Working Fathers in South Africa ..	56
The relationship between role centrality and family-to-work conflict.	59
Contributions of this Study	61
Theoretical contributions.	61
Practical implications for management.....	63
Leadership and teamwork.....	63
Sensitivity training and systematic change.	64

Recommendations for Future Research	64
Conclusion	66
References	68
Appendices	83

List of Tables

Table 1 Definitions of Centrality related Constructs	17
Table 2 Gender Role Variables.....	25
Table 3 Studies using Gender Role Ideology as a Moderator Variable....	30-32
Table 4 Distribution of Questionnaires per Organisation	37
Table 5 Demographic Characteristics of the Sample.....	38
Table 6 Factor Loadings for Role Centrality	44
Table 7 Factor Loadings for Gender Role Ideology	45
Table 8 Factor Loadings for Work-Family Conflict.....	46
Table 9 Descriptive Statistics for Summary Scales	47
Table 10 Mean, Standard Deviation and Correlation Analysis for Indicators	48
Table 11 Hierarchical Multiple Regression: Summary for Dependent Variable Family-to-work Conflict	50
Table 12 Hierarchical Multiple Regression: Summary for Dependent Variable Work-to-family Conflict	52
Table 13 Propositions and Summary of Results	55

List of Figures

<i>Figure 1. Conceptual Model: Role Centrality, Gender Role Ideology and Work-Family conflict.....</i>	<i>33</i>
<i>Figure 2. Work Centrality and Gender Role Ideology Interaction in Predicting W2FC.....</i>	<i>52</i>
<i>Figure 3. Family Centrality and Gender Role Ideology Interaction in Predicting F2WC.....</i>	<i>53</i>
<i>Figure 4. Normal P-P Plot for Dependent Variable Family-to-Work Conflict</i>	<i>89</i>
<i>Figure 5. Normal P-P Plot for Dependent Variable Work-to-family Conflict</i>	<i>89</i>

List of Appendices

Appendix A: Cover Letter	83
Appendix B: Body of Electronic Mail	84
Appendix C: Reminder Electronic Mail	85
Appendix D: Work-Family Conflict Scale	86
Appendix E: Role Centrality Scale	87
Appendix F: Gender Role Ideology Scale	88
Appendix G: Normal Probability Plot of Regression Standardised Residuals	89

Introduction

The family role is becoming increasingly important to white-collar fathers' lives in South Africa (Carrasco, Francoeur, Labelle, Laffarga, & Ruiz-Barbadillo, 2014; Mathur-Helm, 2002). In South Africa this phenomenon is facilitated by the redress of previously disadvantaged individuals, namely women and black African individuals through post-democratic legislation promoting gender equality (Corrigall & Konrad, 2007). The tension between their work demands and family demands increases potentially resulting in inter-role conflict (Lingard & Francis, 2005; Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, Snoek, & Rosenthal, 1964). Inter-role conflict between the work and family domain has been conceptualised as work-family conflict (WFC), which is defined as "a form of inter-role conflict in which the role pressures from the work and family domains are mutually incompatible in some respect" (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985, p. 77). There is a scarcity of literature examining WFC and factors that help explain these occurrences within the context of South African fathers.

WFC is an important issue for individuals, organisations and society due to its associated negative work and family consequences such as increased employee absenteeism, burnout and stress (Amstad, Meier, Fasel, Elfering, & Semmer, 2011). WFC researchers have primarily focused on mothers or parents in general, with limited focus specifically on the experiences of working fathers. Meta-analytical data have confirmed several antecedents of WFC (Michel, Kotrba, Mitchelson, Clark, & Baltes, 2011) including role involvement, role stressors, role support and work characteristics as antecedents of WFC. Less research attention has been given to the antecedent effect that role centrality has on WFC. As gender roles are changing it is important to examine how working fathers' role centralities shape their WFC experiences.

The perceived importance that an individual attributes to one particular role is shaped through socialisation (Paullay, Alliger, & Stone-Romero, 1994), from their family, friends, religion and culture (Mannheim, 1993; Mannheim & Schiffrin, 1984; Paullay et al., 1994; Perrone, Wright, & Jackson, 2009). Individuals that present with high levels of role centrality in a domain believe that the particular role is most important in their lives, and therefore devote more time, energy and resources to complete that role (Thoits, 1991; Paullay et al.,

1994; Perrone et al., 2009). When one is not able to fulfil a role, which they deem high in centrality, inter-role conflict occurs (Frone, Russell, & Cooper, 1992).

Aside from within-domain relations, cross-domains relations have been shown to play an important role in explaining WFC (Ford, Heinen, & Langkamer, 2007). Within-domain relationships refer to when the primary effect of WFC is experienced in the originating domain. For example, a father's increased work demands may prevent him from relaxing with his family after As a result he resents his work thereby contributing to negative work-related outcomes. Cross-domain relationships refer to when the primary effect of WFC is not found in the originating domain but rather the other domain. For example, a father may experience high levels of stress at work and as a result is not able to fully engage with his family at home. The father's work demands increased negative outcomes in the family domain (Ford et al., 2007).

The South African Context

Post-democratic legislation changes have promoted a gender equal environment, whereby employees have equal access to the workforce. A gender egalitarian constitution and South Africa's management practices, which are predominantly based on Anglo-based systems (Andreasson, 2011), have to some extent influenced South African organisations in adopting a more egalitarian gender role ideology. This new gender role ideology, being one of shared roles and responsibilities across gender groups and work roles and attitudes, should not be assigned to one particular gender group (Somech & Drach-Zahavy, 2007).

With more dual-earner couples entering the workforce in South Africa, working fathers are potentially tasked with family-related matters, which historically were attributed to women. This new role of South African men being classified as "working fathers" is an area in which researchers need to further explore (Morrell, 2006). Uchendu (2008) pointed out that historically, an androcentric framework governed South Africa, promoting the notion that men are breadwinners and dominate the home life while women are subservient and responsible for the family roles. This patriarchal system was introduced to South Africa through colonisation (Uchendu, 2008).

Barker (1999) explained that through the process of socialisation, social gender norms are developed in line with the particular context and society that an individual is in. Ratele (2008) notes that the country's political and economic spheres need to be examined, when trying to understand work and gender related issues in a South African context. According to Peacock, Khumalo, and McNab (2006), as a result of the historical events that South Africa has encountered, one needs to examine the impact that these events have had on working fathers' identity as the theory of socialisation posits that identity and social norms are formed based on an individual's surroundings (Perrone et al., 2009).

In addition to the above the Industrial Revolution, anti-colonial wars and the general emancipation of women have shaped working fathers' identity in South Africa (Ratele, 2008; Uchendu, 2008). Ratele (2008) and Uchendu (2008) explained that as a result of fathers and grandfathers being forcibly conscripted, young men and women feel a sense of abandonment. Moreover, Ratele (2008) and Uchendu (2008) found that this sense of abandonment lies subconsciously within South African men and link this sense of neglect they received from their fathers to their gender identity, as traditionally men distance themselves from the care role in the family and focus on their financial contribution to the family. Uchendu (2008) raises the issues of new gender dynamics emerging, as traditionally fathers were responsible for financially supporting the household and women were absent from the formal economy.

According to Lyness and Judiesch (2014) societal gender norms affect workplace behaviours. South Africa's constitution promotes gender equality workplace practices and prohibits unfair discrimination based on an individual's gender (Employment Equity Act, 55 of 1998). The change in legislation towards a more gender-equal society is altering the traditional family structure. Previously the breadwinner model, whereby men were socialised to assume the role of breadwinner and women the homemaker, is being transformed as more women are entering the workforce (McLaughlin & Muldoon, 2014). This shift is causing more men to be taking on roles once traditionally associated with women (McLaughlin & Muldoon, 2014). New idealised notions of fatherhood in which men are actively involved in both the work and home domain could be contributing to the increased levels of WFC, as men are no longer seen as only a source of financial support but rather care givers as well (McLaughlin & Muldoon, 2014). This is based on the fact that with greater involvement of women in the workforce, working fathers are required to negotiate between competing

organisational and family roles, which could result in increased WFC (McLaughlin & Muldoon, 2014).

Somech and Drach-Zahavy (2007) reported that an individual's gender role ideology has an effect on their levels of WFC because values and beliefs that are salient to an individual have an influence on their behavioural decisions. Little research has focused on the effects that role centrality and gender role ideology have on work-family conflict experiences. Taken together, this study extends existing work-family literature by examining between work and family role centrality and WFC amongst South African working fathers and examines whether or not this relationship will vary depending on the father's gender role ideology.

Gender role ideology refers to an individual's attitudes and values regarding the most appropriate roles for men and women (Barnett & Hyde, 2001; Gibbons, Hamby, & Dennis, 1997; Kailasapathya, Kraimer, & Metz, 2014). Individuals vary along this gender role ideology continuum, depending on their perceptions of the roles and responsibilities of men and women. A traditional gender role ideology identifies specific roles for men and women (Denton, 2004). Men are responsible for providing financial support while women are tasked with providing care in the home (Denton, 2004). Alternatively, individuals that value equality across gender groups are classified as having an egalitarian gender role ideology (Somech & Drach-Zahavy, 2007).

The Employment Equity Act No. 55 of 1988, The Basic Conditions of Employment Act of 1997 and Affirmative Action are structures that the South African government has created to ensure that men and women are treated without discrimination. These Acts promote an egalitarian gender role ideology in organisational settings. For example, the amendment to the *Basic Conditions of Employment Act of 1997*, to include paternity leave is currently being debated (Jackman, 2014). Despite allowances being made for working fathers in South Africa to have greater involvement in the home domain alongside their work domain, it has been noted that globally fathers are hesitant to utilise organisational family friendly policies due to the stigma associated with using such policies (Williams, Blair-Loy, & Berdahl, 2013).

Aims of the Research

Based on the above analysis, this study aims to add to the limited research on work-family conflict amongst South African fathers by examining the predictive effect of role centrality on work-family conflict. In addition the present study seeks to determine whether or not gender role ideologies have a moderating effect on the relationship between role centrality and work-family conflict. Lastly exploring both the within-domain and cross-domain relationships between role centrality and work-family conflict.

This study aims to make a contribution to South African organisations in developing policies and general practices that will support fathers. Organisations are faced with the challenge of retaining, developing and supporting fathers since a new notion of masculinity emerged with the ending of Apartheid, creating a more egalitarian gender role ideology among working fathers (Walker, 2005). Through understanding the gender role ideology of working fathers, and how this might interact with role centrality and WFC, organisations are better able to provide facilities that could decrease work-to-family conflict (W2FC) and family-to-work conflict (F2WC) (Somech & Drach-Zahavy, 2007).

Research Question

In order to meet these aims the research question is: To what extent does role centrality and gender role ideology help explain work-family conflict?

Significance of Study

This study aims to contribute to the limited WFC research in South Africa by researching the relationship between role centrality and WFC among white-collar working fathers. Moreover, it extends current research by examining the potential interaction effect that gender role ideology might have on the relationship between role centrality and WFC.

Structure of the Dissertation

This section provides an introduction to the research topic, its aims and a motivation for this study. In the literature review, the limited literature pertaining to the effect that role centrality may have on W2FC and F2WC as well as the potential interaction effect that

gender role ideology might have is examined. In addition, the research propositions will be presented. The third section outlines the research method implemented to investigate the propositions. This section will provide a guideline for other researchers to replicate this study in other contexts. The results and statistical data analysis are articulated in the results section. In the fifth section the results of the statistical analysis are discussed with reference to the study's propositions and implications for South African management practices are discussed.

Literature Review

This section presents a focused overview of the relevant literature on the causes of work-family conflict and interaction variables used in understanding this relationship. The review is organised into three main sections. Firstly, the review provides an overview of the theoretical framework for work-family conflict, role centrality and gender role ideology as explained by multiple theories. The second section examines the paucity of studies used to understand role centrality as an antecedent of work-family conflict in order to provide an improved understanding of work-family conflict. Finally, the third section considers the scant literature on gender role ideology as an interaction variable between role centrality and work-family conflict.

Theoretical Framework of Work-Family Conflict

Work-family conflict is the inter-role conflict between the family domain and the work domain (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Kahn et al., 1964). Role pressures from work and the family can be perceived as incompatible and resultantly increase an individual's stress when trying to satisfy the demands of both domains. WFC is rooted in role stress theory (Kahn et al., 1964; Evans & Bartolome, 1984). The argument of this theory is that multiple role demands and responsibilities are unable to be completed simultaneously and result in negative outcomes, such as distress and a decreased level of engagement at work (Rantanen, Kinnunen, Feldt, & Pulkkinen, 2008; Sidani & Al Hakim, 2012).

Role stress theory.

Incompatible role demands is coupled with the notion of fixed and limited energy supply, referred to as the scarcity hypothesis (Barnett & Gareis, 2006; Barnett, Marshall, & Singer, 1992; Dautzenberg et al., 2000; Froberg, Gjerdingen, & Preston, 1986; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Marks, 1977; Randall, 1988; Wayne, Musisca, & Fleeson, 2002). Randall (1988) argued that focusing one's resources, such as time and energy, in one role (such as that of an employee), results in insufficient resources available for the other roles (such as that of a parent) (Dautzenberg et al., 2000; Inglehart, 2008). This can lead to roles competing for the limited resources, resulting in inter-role conflict

The argument of the scarcity hypothesis is that should an individual not be able to fulfil the multiple roles ascribed to them at one point in time, they are likely to react by focussing all of their energy on one role, thereby neglecting their other roles (Dautzenberg et al., 2000; Inglehart, 2008; Wayne et al., 2002). The scarcity hypothesis explained, that when an individual is faced with multiple roles, which are incompatible, they are more likely to experience inter-role conflict. This theory has been applied to WFC and work-family researchers have determined that WFC has a negative effect on both job and family-related outcomes (Frone et al., 1992; Wayne et al., 2002). In line with the above, WFC is potentially problematic for working fathers as traditionally they have been prescribed the breadwinner role; however, changing gender role norms have led to an increased uptake of childcare responsibilities by fathers (McLaughlin & Muldoon, 2014). This increase in multiple role engagement may increase the risk of inter-role conflict, thereby depleting working fathers of their energy, time and other relevant resources.

Drawing on the resource drain theory, Randall (1988) argued that there are negative outcomes when an individual has a limited amount of resources (Piotrkowski, 1979; Rothbard, 2001). It was suggested that individuals who pool their resources from one domain to the other are likely to experience inter-role conflict, energy depletion and burnout.

Resource drain theory is a similar perspective to the scarcity hypothesis theory and elaborates on the concept of limited resources available to an employee (Michel et al., 2011). By gathering all one's resources from one domain (work) to the other (family), the individual is limited in their output potential in the domain (work) that they drew all their resources from, therefore potentially experiencing greater WFC (Geurts & Demerouti, 2003; Tenbrunsel, Brett, Maoz, Stroh, & Reilly, 1995; Voydanoff, 2004). This potentially has a negative effect on fathers in the workforce and contributes to WFC. The psychological ramifications of constantly having to negotiate one's resources between the different domains can cause psychological distress and energy depletion (Piotrkowski, 1979; Rothbard, 2001; Voydanoff, 2004). If the limited resources are found in the work domain, and resources from the family domain are used to fulfil work related activities, thereby exhausting an individual's resource base, work-to-family conflict (W2FC) may be experienced. In the opposite direction, if resources from the work domain are used to satisfy the family domain,

thereby depleting the individual's work resource base, family-to-work conflict (F2WC) may be experienced. This crossover between domains can be explained using the spillover effect.

In corroboration with the resource drain theory is the concept of negative spillover. The argument of this concept is that there is a permeable boundary between the work and home domains and through the transfer of affect; values, skills and behaviour, the work and family domains are able to influence each other (Thompson, Beauvais, & Allen, 2006). This would indicate that it is possible for stresses that occur in the work domain to spillover into the family domain, classified as W2FC (Staines, 1980). Likewise, stress experienced in the home domain may crossover into the work domain, namely F2WC (Staines, 1980), such as a bad mood from an experience at work, can influence the employee's mood at home resulting in the negative spillover effect (Bowen & Pittman, 1995; Schuller, Roesler, & Rau, 2014; Thompson et al., 2006).

Work-family literature has consistently determined that there is a crossover relationship between the work and family domains, thus providing evidence for the directionality of WFC (Staines, 1980). Due to the permeability between the home and work environment, unhappiness experienced at work by fathers may spillover into the home domain. In addition, the feeling of stress and anxiety experienced at work may also crossover into the home domain and be experienced in this sphere. To explain the spillover effect, Kando and Summers (1971) argued that attitudes that are tolerated and accepted at work will become ingrained in the working individual and carried over to their home domain. In this way, the boundaries between the home and work domain are permeable. Conflict that arises at work for working fathers in South Africa, as a result from the multiple roles they perform, permeates into the home domain, resulting in W2FC.

The argument of role stress theory is that people are categorised into specific behaviour patterns and roles (Biddle, 1986). Roles are understood as the social positions that individuals hold and their fulfilment of the relevant socially prescribed behaviour patterns (Stangor, 2013). Role theory is used to understand and analyse social phenomena (Raes, Heijltjes, Glunk, & Roe, 2011). Within an organisational context role stress theory lends itself to understanding the strain and stress associated with an individual having multiple roles, both within the working domain and the home space. Socialisation can be blamed for

the stereotypical norms associated with various gender-related roles, in which men prioritise work domain whilst women prioritise family responsibilities.

Through the process of socialisation the norms of the given milieu are projected onto the individual and the acceptable norms for a particular role is determined. In the particular context of working fathers in South Africa and their WFC experiences, the socialisation process is vital in order to understand what behaviours are expected for men in both the organisational context and the home environment (Murenga, 2010). When men in South Africa also take on responsibilities associated with fathering, these multiple role demands are likely to be incompatible, particularly because of the norms of patriarchy that many South African men are socialised to assume. The incongruences between the organisational expectations and the home expectations can potentially lead to WFC as a result of multiple roles conflicting with one another.

Despite work-family literature consistently using role stress theory and conflict theory to explain the negative effects of WFC, criticism has been found in using this theory in isolation. Biddle (1986) critiqued using role stress theory in isolation as it assumes that organisations are stable units and that when conflict arises, one need to only remove the roles causing the conflict, to ensure that the general equilibrium is reached again. Barnett and Gareis (2006) proposed that sex role attitudes should be examined in conjunction with role stress theory in order to understand society's prescribed roles for men and women. More recent literature has stressed the importance of understanding the context in which the role holder is situated, as individuals are multifaceted and draw knowledge, experience and emotion from performing multiple roles (Markham, Ward, Aiman-Smith, & Kingon, 2010). The present study examines white collar working fathers in South Africa in order to understand their WFC experiences.

In addition to the above working fathers in South Africa are expected to behave in particular ways and abide by societal expectations, and in most cases they are expected to be the main source of income for their family (Scott, 2012). Moreover, their role as a father is one that is influenced by their religious and cultural beliefs as well as their community's expectations and norms (Scott, 2012). It is essential to examine the social, cultural and

religious norms of fathers in a particular community and organisational context when studying WFC within the context of South Africa.

The nature of work-family conflict.

The following section discusses the nature of WFC with regard to directionality, dimensionality, antecedents and consequences.

Bi-directionality of work-family conflict.

Existing literature has consistently provided evidence of WFC as a bi-directional construct (Amstad et al., 2011; Byron, 2005; Carlson, Kacmar, Wayne & Grzywacz, 2006; Ford et al., 2007; Fox, Fonseca, & Bao, 2011; Kelly, Moen, & Tranby, 2011; Michel et al., 2011; Netemeyer, Boles, & McMurrian, 1996; Siu et al., 2011). This means that in the W2FC direction, roles at work, which demand time, energy and resources, cause conflict in the home domain. In contrast, when examining the F2WC direction, it is evident that the time and energy devoted to fulfilling home-related duties have a negative impact on one's work domain. Ford et al. (2007) found correlations between W2FC and F2WC, explaining a cross-domain relationship between antecedents of WFC in explaining conflict experienced in both the work and family directions of WFC. Cross-domain relations refer to the extent to which factors in the family domain are related to conflict in the work domain and the extent to which factors in the work domain are related to conflict in the family domain (Ford et al., 2007). Within-domain relations refer to the extent to which factors in the family domain are related to F2WC and the extent to which factors in the work domain are related to W2FC.

Meta-analytical support has been found for the two directions of WFC correlating (Amstad et al., 2011; Byron, 2005; Ford et al., 2007; Mesmer-Magnus & Viswesvaran, 2005). Mesmer-Magnus and Viswesvaran (2005) meta-analysed the differences between W2FC and F2WC. The researchers reported a weighted mean observed correlation of $r_{wm} = .38$ and corrected correlation was $\rho = .48$ using 25 independent samples (total $N = 9079$) (Mesmer-Magnus & Viswesvaran, 2005). The 90% confidence levels ranged from .27 - .69, indicating the different relationships between W2FC and F2WC (Mesmer-Magnus & Viswesvaran, 2005). The researchers concluded that measuring both directions of WFC

would provide greater insight into this phenomenon (Mesmer-Magnus & Viswesvaran, 2005).

In addition to the above empirical evidence for the bi-directional nature of WFC, Byron (2005), also reported a weighted average mean of $\rho = .48$ between W2FC and F2WC. Using 47 studies (total $N = 13\,384$) suggest that as conflict increased in one domain it is likely to be related to an increase in conflict in the other domain.

Cross-domain relationships have been explored between the antecedents of WFC and their negative outcomes. Amstad et al. (2011) found F2WC to have negative work-related outcomes such as satisfaction, organisational commitment, intention to turnover and work-related strain. Similarly, negative family-related outcomes were found for W2FC, including family and marital satisfaction, family related performance and family related strain (Amstad et al., 2011).

Dimensionality of work-family conflict.

Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) explained three types of WFC. Firstly, time-based conflict, which is understood as “the time demands of one role make it difficult or impossible to participate fully in another role” (Parasuraman & Greenhaus, 1997, p. 4). For example evening meetings make it challenging for working fathers to have dinner with their family. The second form of WFC is strain-based conflict which has been defined by Parasuraman and Greenhaus (1997) as “symptoms of psychological strain generated by the demands of the work or family role intrude or „spill over“ into the other role, making it difficult to fulfil the responsibilities of that role” (p. 4). A manager who is anxious about his son’s current illness might not be able to manage his team effectively. The final type of WFC that may be experienced is behaviour-based conflict, which occurs “when the behaviours that are expected or appropriate in the family role are viewed as inappropriate or dysfunctional when used in a work role” (Parasuraman & Greenhaus, 1997, p. 4). An example of this is when a senior manager is required to be aggressive and hard driving at work in order to reach sales targets and be promoted at work, but this behaviour if enforced at home could cause tension and conflict at home (Thompson et al., 2006). The three dimensions were conceptualised in

both directions of WFC. The current study focuses on the directionality of WFC and not its dimensionality, as the dimensions of WFC have not always been found in empirical research.

Consequences of work-family conflict.

Detrimental personal and organisational outcomes have been associated with WFC. In a meta-analysis conducted by Amstad et al. (2011) consequences of WFC in the direction of W2FC have been found, such as reduced work satisfaction, organisational commitment, intention to quit, decreased employee wellness, work related strain and increased employee absenteeism. In the F2WC direction consequences such as, marital satisfaction, family satisfaction, family related performance and family related strain have been found (Amstad et al., 2011).

In order to reduce the onset of the negative outcomes associated with WFC, researchers and organisations are interested in the factors that contribute to WFC experiences for employees so that these antecedents can be managed effectively. A meta-analysis on the antecedents of WFC by Michel et al. (2011) reported several antecedents of WFC. One particular antecedent that has received little attention in the WFC literature is role centrality. Gaining a better understanding of the extent to which role centrality contributes to working fathers' WFC experiences is important for organisations, in order to design and implement policies and practices that aim to reduce the negative outcomes associated with WFC. To gain a holistic understanding of the nature of WFC, a summary of the meta-analytical findings of the antecedents of WFC are presented.

Antecedents of work-family conflict.

Previous meta-analyses have examined antecedents of WFC. Byron (2005) identified job involvement, hours spent at work, work support, job flexibility and job stress to be within-domain antecedents of W2FC. Work related antecedents were more strongly related to W2FC than to F2WC (Byron, 2005). Similarly family related antecedents, such as family involvement, family support, family conflict, number of children, age of children, spousal employment and marital status tended to relate more to F2WC than W2FC (Byron, 2005). Interestingly job stress, family stress and family conflict had the strongest associations

between both directions of WFC (Byron, 2005). Byron (2005) suggested that while there are two distinct directions of WFC and different work and family factors that contribute to the experience of W2FC and F2WC, some factors might concurrently have disruptive effects on employees' work and family lives.

Michel et al. (2011) examined both family role involvement and work role involvement, and clustered family and work centrality under the construct of role centrality. Similarly, in a meta-analysis examining antecedents of WFC conducted by Byron (2005), only family and work involvement were included as antecedents of both W2FC and F2WC in understanding the importance of a role, as opposed to role centrality which was not examined. Ford et al. (2007) examined the within-domain and cross-domain relationship that work and family involvement had in explaining a significant proportion of variance in W2FC and F2WC. Likewise, work and family centrality was excluded in Ford et al.'s (2007) meta-analytical study on cross-domain relations between work, family satisfaction and conflict, as role involvement was observed. It is suggested that the construct centrality (both work and family centrality) should be examined as an antecedent of W2FC and F2WC. In addition, the potential cross-domain relationship between work centrality and F2WC and family centrality and W2FC should be explored. The examination of this cross-domain relationship will determine whether or not the importance that a working father attributes to either a work role or a family role will impact how they let that role interfere with either their work or family domain (Carlson et al., 2006; Donald & Linington, 2008). It is therefore proposed that through examining the directions of WFC, it is possible to uncover cross-domain relationships. In addition there is a lack of research around this cross-domain in work-family literature.

Role Centrality

Defining role centrality.

Role centrality has been defined as "the subjective importance that a person attaches to a particular role-identity" (Thoits, 1991, p. 105). Past researchers have used the terms "role involvement", "role salience" and "role centrality" interchangeably due to the similarities found between these constructs (Paullay et al., 1994).

Stryker and Serpe (1994) examined whether or not there is a difference between identity salience and psychological centrality for a sample of university students ($N = 320$). Correlation analysis confirmed that in some situations identity salience and role centrality are related amongst males ($.09 < r < .15$) while in other contexts identity salience and role centrality are independent constructs (Stryker & Serpe, 1994). Stryker and Serpe (1994) used role identity theory as a theoretical base for understanding identity salience and role centrality. Despite being drawn from the same psychological theory, differences in the conceptual definitions of the constructs are evident. Salience has been defined as the readiness to act out an identity in a given situation (McQuillan, Greil, Shreffler, & Bedrous, 2014). Alternatively, centrality has been defined as the prominence of an identity in relation to other identities (McQuillan et al., 2014). These conceptual definitions are in line with Stryker and Serpe's (1994) findings amongst university students, providing evidence of conceptual differences between salience and centrality.

According to Adamsons and Pasley (2013) the difference between salience and centrality is the conscious awareness of the individual enacting the identity. In this way, if one is examining the centrality of a working father, one would ask, "How important is being a father?" as this involves understanding the conscious decision of the father. Alternatively, by asking "What is the likelihood that a man will enact fathering relevant behaviours?" one would be measuring a father's salient identity as no conscious awareness is required (Adamsons & Pasley, 2013). Gaunt and Scott's (2014) conceptualization of identity salience and centrality is consistent with Stryker and Serpe's (1994) distinct conceptualizations of the constructs. Gaunt and Scott (2014) confirmed that a level of awareness is present when examining an individual's psychological centrality as their subjective norms dictate the hierarchy of their multiple roles and identities associated with those roles (See Table 1 for the definitions of the constructs).

In the present study, role centrality is included as a predictor in order to examine the relationship between the importance that working fathers find either their work or family roles to be, and how their work or family roles might contribute to increased levels of WFC. Due to limited empirical findings on centrality, the review that follows will also incorporate these similar constructs, role involvement and salience.

Work centrality is the perceived importance that one attributes to work in their life, whereas family centrality is the perceived importance that one ascribes to their family in their life (Paullay et al., 1994). Kossek, Ruderman, Braddy, and Hannum, (2012) explained that dual-centricity occurs when an individual values both their work and family similarly. The involvement of an individual in social roles has been linked to Stryker's (1968) identity theory. Role identity theory has consistently been used to understand the role centrality, role salience, role commitment and role involvement of an individual (Amatea, Cross, Clark, & Bobby, 1986; Cinamon, 2006; Kossek et al., 2012).

A weakness concerning the application of role identity theory is the lack of context taken into account by researchers. This is particularly problematic when conducting research around fathers, as changing gender norms may contribute to the identity attributed to a given role (Adamsons & Pasley, 2013). Adamsons and Pasley (2013) suggest that by placing greater emphasis on the milieu of the research a more comprehensive understanding of the WFC experienced is gained.

Table 1

Definitions of Centrality related Constructs

Construct	Author	Date	Definition
Role Involvement	Yogev & Brett	1985	Psychological response to one's current role or job, the degree to which the person is identified psychologically with the role, and the importance of the role to the person's self-image and self-concept.
Role Salience	Bagger, Li, & Gutek	2008	The role becomes an important part of the self and has critical effects on one's self- concept
Role Centrality	Paullay, Alliger, & Stone-Romero.	1994	Belief that individuals have regarding the degree of importance that the role plays in their lives.

Role centrality and work-family conflict.

The perceived importance that an individual attributes to one particular role is shaped through socialisation (Paullay et al., 1994), from their family, friends, religion and culture (Mannheim, 1993; Mannheim & Schiffrin, 1984; Paullay et al., 1994; Perrone et al., 2009). Identity theory is used to understand the relationship between role centrality and WFC.

According to Koekemoer, Mostert, and Rothmann Jr. (2010), the foundation of the identity theory is built on the assumptions, descriptions, expectations and scripts of the symbolic interactionism perspective as established by Mead (1934). The argument of identity theory is that through the process of socialisation, and interacting in multiple roles in society, an individual formulates a multifaceted self-concept (Burke, 1980; McCall & Simmons, 1966; Stryker, 1968; Wiley, 1991). Koekemoer et al. (2010) explained that for every role an individual occupies in society, there is a distinct set of identities assigned by that society, to the particular role. A person's role identities may include being a working father, a husband

and a South African. Particularly in democratic South Africa, identities have adapted to the changing circumstances and it is proposed that experiences of WFC might vary between fathers in different social roles.

Social roles are categorised into a hierarchy. According to Burke (1980) and Thoits (1991), the structural positioning of roles provides meaning for the individual and forms the role identity of the individual occupying that role. Drawing on role identity theory, the level of importance that an individual attributes to a given role influences the role hierarchy in their role identity (Thoits, 1991). The higher the level of importance assigned to a given role, the more engaged and committed the individual is in fulfilling that role (Shreffler, Meadows, & Davis, 2011). Bagger and Li (2012) explained that strongly identified roles are more central to the self, and therefore are more likely to be evoked in situations.

Individuals that present with high levels of role centrality in a domain believe that the particular role is most important in their lives, and therefore devote more time, energy and resources to complete that role (Thoits, 1991; Paullay et al., 1994; Perrone et al., 2009). When one is not able to fulfil a role, which they deem high in centrality, inter-role conflict arises (Frone et al., 1992).

Role centrality and work-to-family conflict.

Studies have provided empirical support for the relationship between work centrality and W2FC (Byron, 2005; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Greenhaus & Kopelman, 1981; Higgins, Duxbury & Irving, 1992; Kossek et al., 2012; Staines, Pleck, Shepard, & O'Connor, 1978). Higgins et al. (1992) found that increased role involvement was a significant predictor of W2FC ($p < .001$) amongst working parents in managerial or professional job roles ($N = 220$). Although Higgins et al. (1992) used job involvement as a predictor of WFC, researchers have used role involvement interchangeably with role centrality (Paullay et al., 1994). Likewise, Byron (2005) found job involvement to be an antecedent of W2FC with a weighted average mean of $\rho = .14$. In addition, in a meta-analysis conducted by Ford et al. (2007), job involvement was found to explain a significant proportion of variance in W2FC, with an average weighted mean of $\rho = .17$. Kossek et al. (2012) found a significant low

correlation between work identity and W2FC in two different samples ($r = .20$; $p < .01$) ($r = .29$; $p < .01$).

Role centrality and family-to-work conflict.

Increased family centrality was found to be related to higher levels of F2WC (Byron, 2005; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Greenhaus & Kopelman, 1981; Holahan & Gilbert, 1979; Kossek et al., 2012). Similarly, in a meta-analysis conducted by Byron (2005) it was found that family involvement was an antecedent of F2WC $\rho = -.02$.

Role centrality and cross-domain relations.

Kossek et al. (2012) found no within-domain correlation between family identity and F2WC, however cross-domain relationships were found between work identity and F2WC ($r = -.14$; $p < .05$). Interestingly cross-domain relationships were found between family identity and W2FC. These cross-domain relationships could be explained by drawing on role stress theory and or role overload.

With reference to the above Wiley (1991) proposed that conflict might arise when individuals have to participate in two central roles simultaneously. An example is when working fathers have to spend time with their children in addition to completing their work tasks. Understanding the relationship between resource allocation to central roles and levels of conflict is essential when understanding the antecedents of WFC. In corroboration with resource drain theory and role conflict/stress theory, Bagger, Reb, and Li (2014) reported that when work centrality is high, individuals commit more resources, time and energy to their work, resulting in greater F2WC. It is suggested that when working fathers in South Africa report high levels of work centrality, they would be more likely to devote more resources to their work domain, resulting in greater reported F2WC. Alternatively employees, who are displaying higher levels of family centrality, are more likely to allocate resources to family domain as opposed to the work domain (Bagger et al., 2014). Allocation of resources to the family domain when work centrality was high, resulted in higher reported levels of W2FC, indicating cross-domain relationships (Bagger et al., 2014). As more women are entering the workforce in South Africa, it is expected that working fathers would report higher levels of

WFC due to their responsibilities in the family domain increasing, in addition to their work related responsibilities. Ford et al. (2007) explained that it is easier for work stressors to crossover into the family domain than it is for family stressors to permeate the work domain. Ford et al. (2007) attested this asymmetry to a stronger spill over or more permeable boundary from work domain to family domain.

In order to understand the relationship between role centrality and gender role ideology as a moderating factor, one needs to determine what factors make a role important to the individual and how gender role ideology moderates role importance. According to Super (1980) and Cook (1994) there are three factors that determine how important a role is to an individual. These factors are: commitment, which refers to one's emotional attachment to a role; participation, which is associated with actually performing in the role, and knowledge gained through portraying the role. The manner in which an individual interacts with society influences their view on how important their role is, and how that role slots into their lives (Cook, 1994).

Drawing on resource drain theory and identity theory, it is proposed in this study that work centrality will explain a significant proportion of variance in (a) W2FC and (b) F2WC.

The Moderating Effect of Gender Role Ideology on the Relationship between Role Centrality and Work-family Conflict

A review of the literature led to the finding that no studies have examined the moderating effect of gender role ideology on the relationship between role centrality and WFC experiences (See Table 3 for a review of the studies that have used gender role ideology as a moderator variable and their findings).

Gender role ideology refers to an individual's attitude towards the stereotypical gendered norms for men and women (Barnett & Hyde, 2001; Gibbons, Hamby, & Dennis, 1997). Gender role ideology is conceptualised as a unidimensional construct expressed on a continuum that ranges from traditional to egalitarian views. Traditional views promote the belief that men prioritise work and women prioritise family, while egalitarian views support the idea of equal role distribution amongst men and women (Somech & Drach-Zahavy,

2007). Pleck (1977) stated that the family roles and responsibilities in rearing children are more likely to be delegated to women while men's roles are more likely to be associated with financial support.

This is in line with Drago and Golden's (2006) explanation of the breadwinner/homemaker model in which husbands are more specialised in work-related activities and wives in homemaker activities. In contrast, Becker (1985) explained that husbands need to be more dedicated to housework and wives should be more involved in job-market activities in order to promote efficient dual earner families. Research into this field is becoming increasingly more important as more women enter the workforce, causing changes to the traditional breadwinner/homemaker model. In addition, the potential interaction effect of gender role ideology will be examined in relation to the association between role centrality and WFC.

Based on meta-analytical evidence of the antecedents of WFC, Michel et al. (2011) stated that most researchers have tested gender as a moderator of WFC. However, the criticism of using gender as opposed to gender role ideology as a moderator is based on the fact that researchers use the term "sex" as a proxy for "gender", which impedes the usefulness of the research findings (Powell & Greenhaus, 2010) (See Table 2 for definitions of variables used interchangeably). Furthermore, researchers tend to use "gender" as a proxy for "gender role ideology". According to Korabik, McElwain and Chappell (2008), this results in statements and assumptions of bio-psychological equivalence, such as all men's focus is on work and women's is on family. Therefore, an issue related to power and authority is attributed to an individual's demographic gender when in actual fact the difference in access to power and authorities are related to their social status, which the variable gender role ideology measures.

It is imperative to control confounding variables when examining the work-family interface within the context of working fathers in South Africa, as traditionally men held more managerial positions than women (Maithani, Misra, Potnis, & Bhuvania, 2012). This allows for greater access to power and autonomy, thereby allowing men more flexibility and control over their work schedule and allocation of resources, which could result in more control over the allocation of their time and resources. The present study controls for

participant's job type, marital status and number of children, as well as working in South Africa. Flexibility, in particular working hours, and autonomy in the work place have been associated with decreased levels of WFC (Allen, Cho, & Meier, 2014; Glass & Estes, 1997).

In conjunction with controlling for confounding variables, Korabrik et al. (2008) explained that there are several common issues that are encountered when gender is used as a variable in studies. Firstly, different methodologies and measures are used to evaluate the level of WFC that the sample is experiencing. As WFC has been found to be experienced differently in different contexts, the common use of global measures of WFC is problematic as an individual's multiple roles and the degree to which they are valued contribute to WFC (Cinamon, 2009). Clayton, Thomas, Singh, and Winkel, (2014) found that participants differed across levels of management, which negatively impacted the results. The researchers further found that studies generally use samples that comprise of participants who are either married, having children, or married without children, which contributes to the inaccurate results due to the heterogeneous sample. It was therefore recommended that these variables should be controlled for.

As the majority of studies comprise of participants from the United States of America and Canada, it is problematic to infer results to different contexts and the use of measurement items that were specifically designed for another culture that may be different from a South African sample. Few cross-cultural studies have been conducted (Korabrik et al., 2008). Furthermore, the use of Western concepts and studies, which are delivered in English to Eastern cultures, is problematic due to a large number of moderating, mediating and confounding variables that are not controlled for. Korabrik et al. (2008) commented on the lack of generalizability that these studies have, due to the cultural context of WFC being an essential contributor of WFC. With more women entering the workforce, a potential shift in the traditional breadwinner model could occur which might impact the reported experiences of WFC amongst working fathers in South Africa.

Different macro-level gender inequalities could contribute to the differences found in research regarding the impact that "gender", "sex" and "gender role ideology" have had on WFC (Fuwa, 2004). For example, in countries that have a more egalitarian gender role ideology, individual-level factors, such as time availability and gender role ideology, should have a stronger effect on the division of labour (Fuwa, 2004). Likewise, in countries where

gender inequality is more severe, individual-level factors should have a weaker impact on the division of labour (Fuwa, 2004). With particular attention to the South African context, the male identity and meaning of fatherhood has transformed as a result of Apartheid, how fathers are portrayed in the media and state policy (Morrell & Richter, 2006). It is proposed that findings might differ from studies conducted in other countries with different social experiences.

In addition to the macro-level gender disparities that might contribute to varied reported levels of WFC, individuals with an egalitarian gender role ideology who are likely to invest time, energy and resources in both their family and their work roles, are expected to experience stress associated with greater levels of WFC (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). Alternatively, individuals with a traditional gender role ideology are likely to invest their resources to their gender appropriate role, and therefore experience less WFC. It is postulated that working fathers in South Africa who have a traditional gender role ideology, but are required to contribute to both their family and work roles, should report greater levels of WFC. In contrast, working fathers in South Africa who have an egalitarian gender role ideology and contribute equally to both their family and work roles will be more likely to experience lower levels of domain specific conflict.

Besides evidence suggesting the direction of WFC experienced, the degree of importance that an individual attributes to their work is dependent on the cultural context within which they operate, their gender role ideology, and how they perceive themselves and their family roles (Cinamon, 2009). If one's family role is a pivotal aspect of one's life, and this is in accordance with the cultural norm of that society for that gender group, then one is less likely to experience high levels of WFC. There is a greater potential that this individual's work would rather conflict with their home life, as they exit the home environment to work. It is therefore evident that the cultural context has a significant contribution to the way in which that particular society views one's work and their actions as either acceptable, in line with the cultural norm, or deviant.

Cinamon (2009) examined within gender differences in role salience and WFC among Jewish ($N = 101$) and Arab ($N = 99$) teachers, with a particular focus on understanding their cultural environment. In particular Cinamon (2009) examined how these female teachers

differed in their religious views, educational levels, political affiliations, economic status and values. These differences were examined in order to understand the impact that these Jewish and Arab teachers' gender role ideology had on WFC. Etzion and Bailyn (1994) and Cinamon (2009) noted that different environments expect women and men to devote more time to either work or family, based on their socialization in that given context.

Kulik and Rayyan (2006) examined gender role attitudes in relation to the division of domestic labour and perceived spousal support amongst educated Jewish ($N = 59$) and Arab-Muslim women ($N = 87$) and compared coping strategies used to deal with W2FC and F2WC. Kulik and Rayyan (2006) found that the effect of culture is significant when understanding the divisions of domestic labour. Kulik and Rayyan's (2006) findings suggest that there are a vast number of variables that contribute to understanding WFC, particularly in diverse communities such as, characteristics of marital life and division of domestic labour. Similarly, Cinamon (2009) found that the meaning that one ascribes to a given role in dual-earner relationship no longer follows the traditional gender role ideologies. With reference to the above, Cinamon (2009) suggested that the role salience of a given role prescribed by a culture needs to be examined, as it too can moderate the relationship between gender roles and WFC.

Table 2

Gender Role Variables

Author	Variable	Definition
Livingston and Judge (2008)	Gender role orientation	The degree to which one identifies with the traditional conceptions (i.e., expectations) of his or her gender role.
Dasgupta and Basu (2011)	Gender role attitudes	The belief as to what the members of a given sex should do.
Uunk, Kalmijn, and Muffels (2005).	Gender role values	Gender roles that are valued and favoured. Countries with egalitarian gender role values normally have increased levels of institutional support for women. Alternatively countries with traditional gender values generally provide greater institutional support for men and value women's roles in the domestic sphere.
Korabrik et al. (2008) Ramadoss and Rajadhyaksha (2012)	Gender role ideology	Attitudes and beliefs about the proper roles of men and women, what appropriate behaviour is deemed acceptable by society and characteristics of men and women in society. Gender role ideology is situated on a continuum from traditional to non-traditional. Men and women can both have traditional and egalitarian attitudes.
Dasgupta and Basu (2011)	Gender role identity	What an individual considers oneself to be in terms of perceived masculinity and femininity.

Theoretical Framework of Gender Role Ideology

The following section examines the gender role hypothesis, social role theory and border theory to understand gender role ideology.

Gender role hypothesis.

The gender role hypothesis was proposed by Pleck (1977) who stated that the way in which individuals experience WFC is impacted by the gender role norms associated with men and women. Due to the fact that men have been traditionally delegated the breadwinner role and women the caregiver role, men are more likely to experience greater levels of W2FC than women (Kailasapathy et al., 2014). It was suggested that individuals systematically differ in the manner in which they manage the boundaries between their work and family roles (Kossek et al., 2012). Kossek et al. (2012) explained that the identities that are most important to an individual are elevated above other identities and become the most central identities for that person. With regards to the work-family interface, an individual's role preferences are likely to contribute towards the level of WFC that he or she experiences.

In addition to the above, it is argued that gender role ideology will moderate the relationship between role centrality and W2FC and F2WC amongst working fathers in South Africa. In line with gender role hypothesis (Pleck, 1977), society's gender role norms for men have traditionally placed fathers as the primary breadwinner (McLaughlin & Muldoon, 2014); however, as macro-factors are changing, such as an inclusive legislation these roles are changing (Fuwa, 2004). The roles that working fathers in South Africa prioritise might differ and therefore working fathers might report different directions of WFC (Fuwa, 2004). As previously mentioned the nature of one's gender role ideology is drawn from the process of socialisation, which is the foundation for social role theory (Eagly, 1987).

Social role theory.

Social role theory posits that people view men and women in certain roles and these collective observations result in stereotypical gendered norms in that particular milieu (Eagly, 1987; Eagly & Wood, 2012; Lyness & Judiesch, 2014). Lyness and Judiesch (2014) found evidence of gender stereotypes impacting on workplace behaviour in a United States context.

Despite social role theory being developed in the United States, Eagly and Wood (2012) have extended the theory to address cross-cultural variations in gender role ideology norms. Treas and Tai (2012) conducted research drawing information from a 31-country study and found that maternal employment predicted the degree of shared household responsibilities between mothers and fathers. Donald and Linington (2008) explained that social role theory underpins the different levels of work-family conflict experienced by men and women. More specifically when social role theory is used in conjunction with border theory a comprehensive understanding of the WFC is gained (Donald & Linington, 2008).

Border theory.

Clark (2000) postulated that the work and family domain are separate from one another and contain distinct borders. Interaction between the two psychologically distinct domains is reliant on the centrality one attributes to roles in each domain (Clark, 2000). The argument underpinning this theory is that the individual is able to shape their work and family domains by determining the centrality of their roles and responsibilities (Donald & Linington, 2008). Clark (2000) explained that an individual's values and responsibilities that are developed through socialisation (Lyness & Judiesch, 2014) and are most central to their self-concept, would allow the individual greater control over that domain. For example, a working father whose family responsibilities are most central to his life is more likely to experience greater F2WC. This is in line with Pleck's (1985) argument that the family boundary is more permeable amongst working fathers than the work boundary.

Drawing on gender role hypothesis, social role theory and border theory it is proposed that gender role ideology will have an interaction effect on the relationship between role centrality and WFC. The potential moderating effect of gender role ideology on the relationship between role centrality and WFC can be explained through Festinger's (1957) cognitive dissonance theory. It is argued that a lack of congruence between the social roles ascribed to an individual (traditionally men highlight their work role) and their actual gender role ideology (in Anglo-Based countries a more egalitarian style) would result in psychological distress. Stickney and Konrad (2007) reported that individuals whose gender role ideology is aligned with dominant social norms are less likely to experience levels of conflict than those that are not. The importance that working fathers in South Africa attribute

to either their work or family roles are impacted by social norms and the changing gender norms in South Africa.

Gender Role Ideology and Work-Family Conflict

Past literature alludes to the moderating effect that gender role ideology can have on WFC relationships. For example, Kailasapath et al. (2014) performed a hierarchical multiple regression with spouses' gender role orientation as an interaction variable between leader member exchange and W2FC amongst Sri Lankan men. Gender role orientation had a significant interaction effect ($p < .10$), finding a negative relationship between leader member exchange and W2FC when their spouses had an egalitarian gender role orientation (Kailasapath et al., 2014).

Similarly, Livingston and Judge (2008) reported gender role ideology to have a significant moderating effect on both W2FC and F2WC in predicting guilt amongst working men and women in Florida. Hierarchical linear modelling was used to calculate the results and indicated that F2WC was predicted amongst those men and women with a traditional gender role orientation when interacting with guilt (Livingston & Judge, 2008). Reported levels of W2FC and guilt were moderated by gender role orientation, with egalitarian individuals reporting higher levels of W2FC than traditional individuals (Livingston & Judge, 2008). Finally, the researchers found a strong positive relationship between F2WC and guilt amongst traditional men and a strong negative relationship amongst egalitarian men. Livingston and Judge's (2008) findings support the moderating effect of gender role ideology in a WFC context.

Somach and Drach-Zahavy (2007) found further support of the moderating effect of gender role ideology on coping strategies and WFC. The researchers reported a significant moderating effect of gender role ideology between coping strategies and WFC amongst men and women who lived with a spouse and were parents with fulltime jobs in Israel (Somach & Drach-Zahavy, 2007). Somach and Drach-Zahavy (2007) found that W2FC was significantly higher for egalitarian men who used the coping strategy "good enough at home" and reported levels of W2FC were significantly lower for egalitarian men who used the coping strategy "delegation at work" than traditional men. Interestingly only when "sex" and the different

coping strategies, “good enough at home” and “delegation at work” interacted with gender role ideology were included in the analysis, were the predictions of W2FC significant (Somach & Drach-Zahavy, 2007).

In the present study, it is assumed that gender role ideology will moderate the relationship between role centrality and WFC. When individuals encounter multiple roles they make choices to engage with roles that are most central in their lives and therefore devote more time, energy and resources to complete that role, leaving fewer resources for the other role (Kossek et al., 2012). Perrone et al. (2009) added that due to the changes in the social norms of gender roles and the increased female presence in the workforce, American working fathers are now placing a high value on both work and family roles.

In addition to the above Cook (1994) explained that individuals are influenced by their socioeconomic positioning, social traditions, gender stereotyping, as well as other internal and external factors. This is achieved as gender frames one’s personal characteristics, the environment and the interaction between the two, furthermore the way in which society understands the norms of how men and women should act and behave (Cook, 1994). Societal expectations, innately shapes one’s own perceptions of their value at work and what roles they should perform as well as how much of one’s day to devote to completing those tasks (Cook, 1994). This perception starts in childhood and carries on into adulthood, where the importance of tasks and roles are shaped by one’s personal gendered identity, and how society views that gender identity (Cook, 1994).

Table 3

Studies Using Gender Role Ideology as a Moderator Variable

Author	Sample	Variables	Findings
Biggs and Brough (2005).	130 University students.	Role salience, work-family conflict and moderating effect of gender role ideology.	No significant direct relationship between gender and bi- directional work-family conflict. Gender role ideology did significantly moderate the relationship between role salience and work family conflict, with women experiencing higher levels of work-family conflict as their role salience increased.
Brennan, Barnett, and Gareis (2001).	Husbands dual earners	Within salary gap in dual-earner couples, increase in earnings.	Marital quality decreased overtime if the wives' earnings increased relative to husbands. This was moderated by gender role ideology.
Cook (1994)	Working individuals.	Role salience, life career patterns and gender role ideology.	Women were found to participate more in the domestic sphere than men did.
Foley et al. (2005).	Hong Kong professionals	Work stressors, perceived organisational support and gender as a moderator of work-family conflict.	Gender was not found to moderate the relationship between work-family conflict, due to women and men merging between stereotypical gender traditions.

Table 3

Studies Using Gender Role Ideology as a Moderator Variable (continued)

Author	Sample	Variables	Findings
Gaunt and Benjamin (2007).	203 Married employees.	Gender role ideology moderates the level of job insecurity and job stress.	Traditional men experienced greater on the job insecurity than traditional women. Egalitarian men and women experienced the same level of job insecurity and job stress.
Greenstein (1995).	Women employed for over 40 hours per week.	Number of paid hours worked per week and marital stability, moderated by gender role ideology.	Egalitarian ideology was associated with negative relationships with the spouse.
James, Barnett, and Brennan (1998).	Dual earner heterosexual couples.	Traditional gender role beliefs and psychological distress.	Men with traditional gender role ideology, displayed higher levels of distress than those that presented with egalitarian ideology.
Kluwer, Heesink, and Van De Vliert (1997).	Dutch couples.	Discontent, marital interaction, conflict outcomes and gender role ideology	Women in traditional relationships avoided displaying their discontent with housework in order to avoid conflict with their husband and challenge traditional gender role ideologies.

Table 3

Studies Using Gender Role Ideology as a Moderator Variable (continued)

Author	Sample	Variables	Findings
Lavee and Katz (2002).	3 Ethnic religions, Judaism, Muslim, and Christianity in Israel.	Gender role ideology moderated the relationship between marital quality and division of labour.	For egalitarian women, a more segregated division of labour was linked directly with lower marital quality. For women in transitional families it was mediated by sense of fairness.
Schwarzwald, Koslowsky, and Izhak-Nir (2008).	78 heterosexual Israeli couples, married for at least one year.	Moderating effect of gender role ideology between social power tactics and marital satisfaction.	There was a significant difference between the power usage in traditional and egalitarian families in Israeli married couples.
Somech and Drach-Zahavy (2007).	679 Employed parents	Moderating effect of gender role ideology on coping strategies and work-family conflict.	Significant findings were established, with gender role ideology being a moderating variable between coping strategies and work-family conflict.

Research Objectives and Propositions

The objective of this study is to extend current literature by examining the potential moderating effect of gender role ideology on the relationship between role centrality and WFC. This study explores both within-domain and cross-domain relationship to gain a nuanced understanding of the relationships between role centrality and the interaction effect it might have with gender role ideology in explaining a significant proportion of WFC. See Figure 1 for the conceptual model.

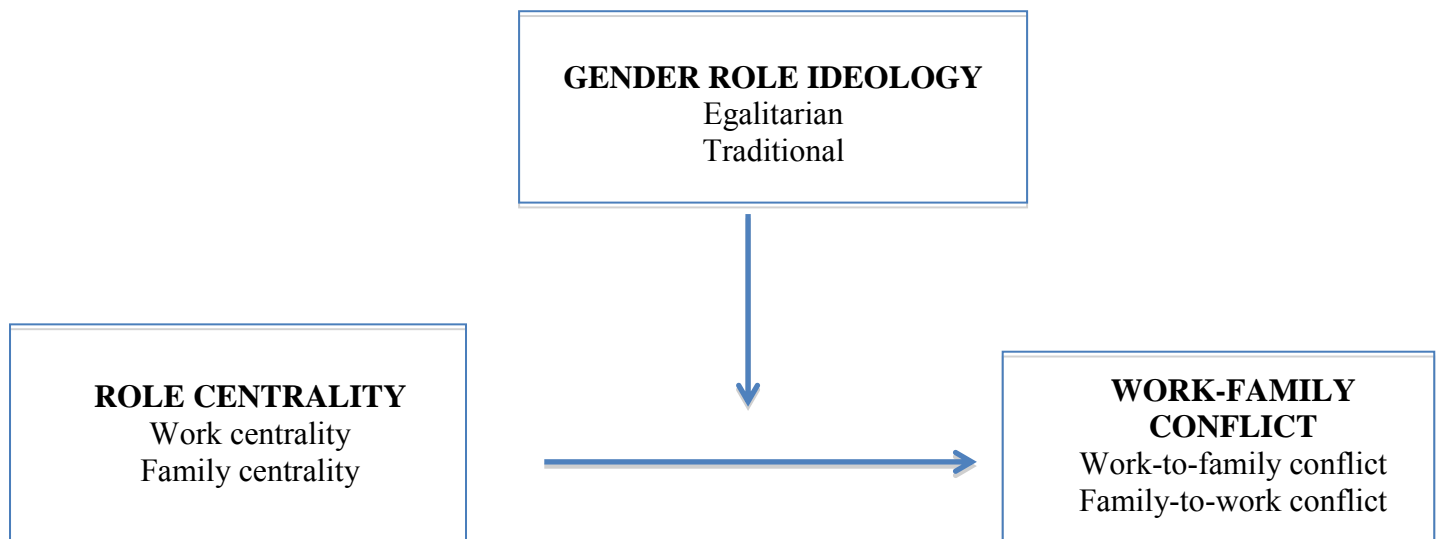


Figure 1. Conceptual Model: Role centrality, gender role ideology and work-family conflict.

Propositions

Proposition 1: (a) Family centrality and (b) work centrality explain a significant proportion of variance in family-to-work conflict among working fathers in South Africa.

Proposition 2: (a) Work centrality and (b) family centrality explain a significant proportion of variance in work-to-family conflict among working fathers in South Africa.

Proposition 3: Gender role ideology moderates the relationship between (a) family centrality and family-to-work conflict and (b) work centrality and family-to-work conflict among working fathers in South Africa.

Proposition 4: Gender role ideology moderates the relationship between (a) work centrality and work-to-family conflict and (b) family centrality and work-to-family conflict among working fathers in South Africa.

Final Notes

This chapter has provided an overview on the complex relationship that gender role ideology has on role centrality and WFC. Despite the drastic change in the androcentric framework that society has traditionally followed, more women are entering the work place, which has influenced the movement towards men adopting an egalitarian gender role. In addition, it is evident that there is limited research on the moderating effect that gender role ideology has on role centrality and WFC. This lack of research warrants empirical attention into uncovering the potential moderating effect that gender role ideology has on the known predictive relationship between role centrality and WFC.

Method

This chapter presents the approach taken to conduct the study in order to meet its aims of examining the relationship between role centrality, gender role ideology and work family conflict amongst working fathers in South Africa. This chapter is divided into five sections, describing the research design, participants, procedure, measures and the data analysis techniques used.

Research Design

A descriptive research design was implemented (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2013). This approach is suitable when measuring specific characteristics described in the research questions (Hair et al., 2013). Propositions were formulated deductively based on existing psychological theory and empirical findings. Cross-sectional data was collected via self-report questionnaires to assess the variables of interest.

Procedure

Prior to conducting the research, ethical clearance for this study was obtained through the University of Cape Town's Commerce Faculty Ethics in Research Committee. In addition, approval to collect data was obtained from the head of human resources at the participating organisations. Participants were assured that all responses would be anonymous and that the study will be conducted in accordance with the American Psychological Association's (2009) protocol. A proposal and explanation of the intended research was given to the heads of each human resource department.

Non-probability sampling approach, as opposed to a probability sampling approach, was used to draw the sample due to complications in implementing the latter approach. For reasons of maintaining privacy, the organisations' databases could not be made available to researcher directly. Instead the human resource manager distributed the electronic link to the questionnaire on the researcher's behalf. The sample was obtained through convenience sampling and a snowballing approach, whereby participants were asked to forward the link of the questionnaire to other people they know. This method was selected for its inexpensive

characteristics (Salkind, 2009). As participants were required to be involved in both work and family roles, a focus on the examination of their relationships between the variables formed the focus of the present study (Salkind, 2009). The convenience sampling method allowed for a large sample group to be targeted conveniently and cost effectively. This approach is sometimes justified when the generalizability of the findings might not rationalise the time and expenses of executing a probability sampling method (Burns & Burns, 2008).

The survey was initially administered to six working fathers for feedback on the online questionnaire design (Van Teijlingen & Hundley, 2010). Positive feedback was received regarding the overall impression and overall comprehension of the questions. The survey was then deemed appropriate to distribute.

Electronic mails (emails) were sent to 1949 employees with a cover letter explaining the objectives of the research project, that participation was voluntary, and that their responses to the questionnaire would be anonymous and confidential (See Appendix A and B). Contact details for the researcher and his research supervisors were provided in the cover letter. Participants were required to click on the electronic survey link to respond to the survey, which was developed on Qualtrics (Qualtrics, 2014). Reminder emails (See Appendix C) were sent three days after the initial email.

The sampling frame comprised of fathers involved in a full time work role with at least one child living at home. In order to survey the correct target population, two qualifying questions were asked to potential participants. First “Do you work at your company full time?” and second “Do you have at least one child?” If participants responded positively to both questions they were eligible to continue. If they responded “no” to at least one of these questions, they were thanked for their contribution and informed that they were not eligible to complete the rest of the questionnaire. Completed questionnaires were recorded on Qualtrics (Qualtrics, 2014) and were automatically saved. The questionnaire took approximately 15 minutes to complete. Data was collected over a five-week period. In order to increase the response rate, participants were asked to select one of the five charities provided in the questionnaire, to which 2.00 South African Rand would be donated for every completed questionnaire.

Participants

A final sample of 371 working fathers was used in this study. A total of 409 employees responded to the questionnaire, of which 38 participants did not meet the criteria for inclusion and were not included in the dataset. Criteria for inclusion in the study required participants to answer “yes” to the following two questions: “Do you work at your company full-time?” and “Do you have at least one child?”. This study was conducted within six different organisations across Johannesburg and Cape Town (See table 4 for a breakdown of participants from each organisation and the snowballing procedure). Due to time and cost constraints, this study was limited to South African participants. Participants were selected from middle to top management.

Table 4

Distribution of Questionnaires per Organisation

Industry	Number of organisations in industry	Number of questionnaires distributed
Retail	Two	1161
Financial	Two	110
Hospitality	One	30
Information Technology	One	554
Law Firm	One	56
Snowballing Procedure	-	38
Total	-	1949

The age of the fathers ranged from 23 to 70 ($M = 41.8$; $SD = 9.01$). Fathers had an average of two children. In addition, it was evident that on average respondents had two children currently residing with them. Tenure ranged from three months to 48 years ($M = 11.17$; $SD = 9.40$). More than half of the fathers reported that they employed paid domestic support (57.41%). It was reported that 61.19% of fathers had spouses engaged in full time work ($n = 227$). Table 5 presents the distribution of the sample’s characteristics.

Table 5

Demographic Characteristics of the Sample

Demographic characteristic	Category	%	<i>n</i>
Sample	Total sample	100	<i>N</i> = 371
Marital status	Single/divorced	6.8	25
	Married/living with partner	91.8	338
	It's complicated	1.4	5
Race	Black	9.5	35
	Coloured	27.2	100
	Indian	9	33
	White	51.1	188
	Other	0.5	2
	Prefer not to answer	2.7	10
Occupation	Management/supervisory	47.8	176
	Specialist/technical/professional	37.2	137
	Sales/admin/support	14.9	55
	Other	-	-
Age of children living at home	Preschool (0-5 years)	38.8	176
	Formal School (6-18 years)	43.4	197
	Adult at home (over 18 years)	17.8	81

Measures

Work-family conflict.

Work-family conflict was measured using Netemeyer et al.'s (1996) ten-item scale of work-family conflict. Netemeyer et al.'s (1996) scale has been extensively used in diverse

contexts. A seven-point Likert-type scale (1 = *strongly disagree* to 7 = *strongly agree*) was used, where high scores indicated high levels of work-family conflict. Acceptable Cronbach's alpha coefficients of .93 (work-family conflict) and .91 (family-work conflict) were reported by Netemeyer et al. (1996). In addition Netemeyer et al.'s (1996) scale has been used in a South African context among working mothers. An acceptable Cronbach's alpha coefficient of .92 was reported (Braghin, 2009). A sample item is "The demands of my work interfere with my home and family life." See Appendix D, for all ten items.

Role centrality.

The work centrality measure developed by Paullay et al. (1994) was used to measure the importance of one's work role. This scale comprises five items and requires participants to rate their level of agreeableness to each item on a five-point Likert-type scale (1 = *strongly disagree* to 5 = *strongly agree*). Barnette (2000) reports that reverse scored items are confusing and negatively influence the internal validity and reliability of the measure. Therefore item three, "I have other activities more important than my work", was adapted to reflect a positively worded item, "My work-related activities are more important than the other activities in my life", in order to be positively scored. A sample item of this scale is "The major satisfaction in my life comes from my work." Family centrality was assessed using a parallel version of the work centrality scale, by replacing the word "work" with "family". The present study excluded the item, "Even if I didn't need the money, I would probably keep working" from the family centrality scale, as it did not transfer coherently. This omission was consistent with Bagger et al.'s (2014) use of the measure. Armstrong-Stassen and Ursel (2009) reported acceptable Cronbach's alpha coefficients of .79 for work centrality and .77 for family centrality. (See Appendix E, for all nine items).

Gender role ideology.

Gender role ideology was measured using the five-item scale developed by Livingston and Judge (2008). The measure assesses the degree to which individuals endorsed traditional versus egalitarian views about the role of women in the workforce and the balance of gender roles at work and home (Livingston & Judge, 2008). Livingston & Judge (2008) reported a Cronbach's alpha of .89. The original four-point Likert-type response scale

“*strongly disagree*” to “*strongly agree*” was adapted to a five-point to fit the response set of the overall survey. Garland (1991) found that excluding a midpoint from the Likert-type scale, as found in a four-point Likert-type scale, often results in more negative ratings on the scale, in comparison to when a midpoint was included. A sample item is “a wife with a family has no time for outside employment.” See Appendix F, for all five items.

Control variables.

Age of children living at home (measured in three categories: preschool 0-5 years, formal school 6-18 years, and adult at home over 18 years), race (measured in six categories: black, coloured, Indian, white, other, prefer not to answer), Occupation (measured in four categories: management/ supervisor, specialist/ technical/ professional, sales/ admin/ support and other) and marital status (measured in three categories: single/ divorced, married/ living with partner and its complicated) were measured as these variables have been found to influence attitudes about gender role ideology (Livingston & Judge, 2008).

Statistical Procedures

To determine the psychometric properties of the scales, Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) was performed to assess the dimensionality of the constructs (Burns & Burns, 2008). Before EFA was performed, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) (1974) and Barlett’s test of Sphericity (1954) were calculated (Burns & Burns, 2008). In order for a satisfactory EFA to be performed, a KMO value greater than .05 is required and the Barlett’s test of Sphericity to be significant ($p < .05$) (Burns & Burns, 2008). Principal-axis was selected as the extraction method and items were rotated with varimax-normalised rotation after listwise deletion of missing data, to allow for increased discrimination between high and low factor loadings, thereby increasing interpretability of the scale (Burns & Burns, 2008; De Winter & Dodou, 2012). Principal-axis factoring was employed and is recommended for data structuring (Hair et al., 2013). Principal axis factoring is able to identify a solution untainted by error and unique variance in the variables in comparison to principal component analysis, which extracts the maximum variance from the dataset including common, unique, and error variance (Hair et al., 2013; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). According to Hair et al. (2013), a factor loading of 0.30 to 0.40 is deemed minimally acceptable for a sample between 300 and

400 ($N = 371$ after listwise deletion). However, Hair et al. (2013) suggested that factor loadings over 0.50 are necessary for practical significance. They also noted that in order to employ factor analysis a sample must have 100 or more observations. The more acceptable sample size is to have ten cases per item (10:1). This study ($N = 371$) far exceeds the ratio of 10:1. Internal consistency between scale items was assessed using Cronbach's alpha reliability. Alpha values greater than .70 were deemed significant (Hair et al., 2013) and item total correlations above .30 were also deemed significant (Field, 2013).

The descriptive statistics were analysed by means of skewness and kurtosis values of zero. A variable with either a positive or negative skewness value indicates the asymmetrical distribution of the variable (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). A positive skewness value indicates that there is a pileup of cases to the left, and the right tail is extended (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). A negative skewness value indicates there is a pileup of cases to the right and the left tail is too long (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Kurtosis values indicate the peakedness of the distribution of the variables, either too peaked, signifying short thick tails, or too flat, with long thin tails (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Kolmogorov-Smirnov statistics above the conventional significant value of 0.05 represent a perfectly distributed variable (Pallant, 2010). The means and standard deviations of the variables were analysed to determine their distribution and dispersion (Salkind, 2009).

Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was employed to evaluate the strength of the relationship between variables (Burns & Burns, 2008). The recommended correlation sizes for this study were as follows: very strong relationship ($0.90 < r < 1.00$), a substantial relationship ($0.70 < r < 0.90$), moderate relationship ($0.40 < r < 0.70$), a weak relationship ($0.20 < r < 0.40$) and a random relationship ($0.00 < r < 0.20$) (Burns & Burns, 2008).

Hierarchical regression was used to test the propositions. The procedure by Aiken and West (1991) was used to conduct the moderated multiple regression analyses. Predictor variables were centred and interaction terms were created in order to avoid potentially high multicollinearity with the interaction term (Aiken & West, 1991). Assumptions of multiple regression were assessed using SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) for Macintosh version 22 (IBM SPSS, 2014). Multicollinearity indicates very high correlations (r

< .90 is the conventional criterion) between independent variables resulting in unstable results (Hair et al., 2013; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007).

To check for multicollinearity, Variance Inflated Factor (VIF) values below the conventional threshold of 10.00 denote low collinearity (Hair et al., 2013). Multivariate normality was assessed using Mahalanobias distance measure. This measure calculates the distance of each case from the centroid of the remaining cases (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Mahalanobias distance was evaluated by examining the chi-square distribution with degrees of freedom equal to the number of variables in the model (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Cases with values that exceeded this value were examined to determine if they should be excluded from the data set (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Two cases, cases 68 and 83, were identified as influential outliers using Mahalanobias distance in the sample ($N = 371$). Both cases, case 68 (64, 98) and case 83 (75, 60) appeared to have extreme distance ($.074 < D^2 < 27.94$), and were deleted as outliers amongst these variables ($N = 369$) (Hair et al., 2013). It is speculated that case 68 was classified as an outlier due to his extreme response set on the work-family conflict items and role centrality items. Similarly case 83 reported very low scores on the gender role ideology items, and low scores on the role centrality items, selecting “*strongly disagree*” with more than half of the items and “*strongly agree*” with one item.

Post-hoc power for multiple hierarchical regression analysis was calculated using GPower (Erdfelder, Faul, & Buchner, 1996). The recommended effect size for this study was as follows: small ($f^2 = .02$), medium ($f^2 = .15$), and large ($f^2 = .35$) (Cohen, 1977). The following chapter presents the results of the data analyses.

Results

This chapter summarises the results from the survey data and is divided into five sections. The first section explores the psychometric properties of the role centrality and work-family conflict scales using exploratory factor analysis and reliability analysis. Section two examines the descriptive statistics of the scales. The third section investigates the correlation analysis between work-family conflict and its antecedents. Section four discusses the results of the hierarchical multiple regression analyses testing the propositions that are presented.

Psychometric Properties of Variables

The following section examines the dimensionality of the scales using EFA and the reliability of the scales as reported by the Cronbach alpha values. Cronbach's alpha values for each scale are reflected on the diagonals in Table 10.

Role centrality scale.

Principal axis factoring with varimax rotation was performed on the nine items on a sample of 365 participants after listwise deletion of missing variables. It was deemed appropriate to conduct an EFA using principal axis factoring as the KMO (1974) test of sampling adequacy was 0.84, which was greater than the recommended value of 0.50 (Burns & Burns, 2008). Bartlett's Test of Sphericity further supported running this procedure ($\chi^2_{36} = 1557.52$, $p < 0.001$) (Bartlett, 1954). Using Kaiser's criterion (1970), that eigen values greater than 1.00 are significant, two significant factors emerged, 3.44 and 1.77, accounting for 38.26% and 19.65% of variance respectively. Factor loadings were all greater than the conventional cut-off for minimal acceptable of 0.30 ($0.43 < r < 0.84$) and thus no items were removed from the scale (Cohen, 1988; Hair et al., 2013) (See Table 6 for factor loadings). The four items clustered in factor one represent family centrality, and the five items clustered in factor two represent work centrality hence, factor one was labelled *Family centrality* and factor two was labelled *Work centrality*. Reliability analysis was conducted on the composite scale *Family centrality* ($\alpha = .89$) and *Work centrality* ($\alpha = .80$) revealed good internal

consistency. Furthermore *Family centrality* and *Work centrality* displayed good item total correlations respectively ($.71 < r < .79$; $.40 < r < .68$).

Table 6

Factor Loadings for Role Centrality

		Factor	
		FC	WC
Family Centrality 1	The major satisfaction in my life comes from my family.	.84	
Family Centrality 2	The most important things that happen to me involve my family.	.84	
Family Centrality 3	My family-related activities are more important than the other activities in my life.	.80	
Family Centrality 4	Overall, I consider family to be very central to my existence.	.78	
Work Centrality 1	The major satisfaction in my life comes from my work .		.72
Work Centrality 2	The most important things that happen to me involve my work.		.79
Work Centrality 3	My work-related activities are more important than the other activities in my life.		.77
Work Centrality 4	Overall, I consider work to be very central to my existence.		.70
Work Centrality 5	Even if I didn't need the money, I would probably keep working		.43
Eigenvalues		3.81	2.18
Individual total variance (percent)		42.37	24.18
Cumulative total variance (percent)		42.37	66.55

Note. $N = 365$ after listwise deletion of missing data; FC = Family centrality; WC = Work centrality; Principal axis factoring with varimax rotation; All values are rounded off to the second decimal place.

Gender role ideology scale.

As expected the gender role ideology items clustered onto one factor. Based on this finding, a composite variable was created and labelled *Gender role ideology*. Extraction using principal axis factoring was employed on the five items on a sample of 365 participants after listwise deletion of missing variables and revealed one factor with a significant eigenvalue greater than 1.00 accounting for 63.94%. All factor loadings were greater than 0.50, generally considered for practical significance ($0.71 < r < 0.84$) and were thus retained (See Table 7 for factor loadings) (Hair et al., 2013). Factor one was labelled GRI (gender role

ideology). The scale was deemed unidimensional and is assumed to represent gender role ideology. Reliability analysis was conducted on the composite scale *Gender role ideology* and revealed good internal consistency ($\alpha = .89$). Item total correlations for *Gender role ideology* ranged from .68 to .77.

Table 7

Factor Loadings for Gender Role Ideology

		Factor GRI
GRI_1	A woman's place is in the home, not the office.	.83
GRI_2	A wife with a family has no time for outside employment.	.84
GRI_3	Employment of wives leads to more juvenile delinquency.	.80
GRI_4	It is much better if the man is the achiever outside the home and the woman takes care of the home and family.	.82
GRI_5	Women are much happier if they stay home and take care of children.	.71
Eigenvalues		3.55
Individual total variance (percent)		71.02
Cumulative total variance (percent)		71.02

Note. $N = 365$ after listwise deletion of missing data; GRI = Gender role ideology; Extraction using Principal axis factoring with varimax rotation; All values are rounded off to the second decimal place.

Work-family conflict scale.

Principal-axis factoring with varimax rotation was performed on the ten items on a sample of 360 participants after listwise deletion of missing variables. Two factors emerged with eigen-values greater than 1.00, which accounted for 38.26% and 19.65% respectively. Table 8 represents the factor loadings on the two significant factors. All ten items were retained as they exceeded the conventional cut-off of .50 for practical significance ($.69 < r > .89$) (Hair et al., 2013).

The five items clustered onto factor one represent work-to-family conflict, hence this factor was labelled *Work-to-family conflict (W2FC)* and the other five items that clustered around factor two represent family-to-work conflict and was labelled *Family-to-work conflict (F2WC)*. Reliability analysis was conducted on the composite scale *W2FC* ($\alpha = .92$) and

F2WC ($\alpha = .90$) and revealed good internal consistency and item total correlations respectively ($.72 < r < .85$; $.69 < r < .80$).

Table 8

Factor Loadings for Work-Family Conflict

		Factor	
		W2FC	F2WC
W2FC1	The demands of my work interfere with my home and family life.	.76	
W2FC2	The amount of time my job takes up makes it difficult to fulfil family responsibilities.	.89	
W2FC3	Things I want to do at home do not get done because of the demands my job puts on me.	.85	
W2FC4	My job produces strain that makes it difficult to fulfil family duties.	.83	
W2FC5	Due to work-related duties, I have to make changes to my plans for family activities.	.79	
F2WC1	The demands of my family or spouse/partner interfere with work-related activities.		.69
F2WC2	I have to put off doing things at work because of demands on my time at home.		.85
F2WC3	Things I want to do at work don't get done because of the demands of my family or spouse/partner.		.86
F2WC4	My home life interferes with my responsibilities at work such as getting to work on time, accomplishing daily tasks, and working overtime.		.81
F2WC5	Family-related strain interferes with my ability to perform job-related duties.		.76
Eigenvalues		3.44	1.78
Individual total variance (percent)		38.26	19.65
Cumulative total variance (percent)		38.26	57.91

Note. $N = 360$ after listwise deletion of missing data; Principal axis factoring with varimax normalised rotation; W2FC = Work-to-family conflict; F2WC = Family-to-work conflict; All values are rounded off to the second decimal place.

Descriptive statistics

This section presents a summary of the descriptive statistics and the distribution of the scores of each variable. Composite scores were made for each of the factors based on their mean score of the items with a primary loading of the factor (See Table 9). Several statistical procedures were performed, in order to determine if the data was normally distributed. Despite skewness and kurtosis statistics indicating that all the variables were non-normally

distributed (See Table 9), the Kolmogorov-Smirnov value for each of the five scales ranged from $0.06 < r > 0.20$, above the conventional significant value of 0.05, thus suggesting that the variables are normally distributed (Pallant, 2010). It should be noted that tests for normality could be impacted by sample size. Hair et al. (2013) determined that for sample sizes greater than 200 that non-normality effects may be insignificant.

The means (M) and standard deviations (SD) were computed for each variable. Reported levels of *Work centrality* were slightly below the midpoint with a mean of 2.63 on a five-point scale ($SD = .80$) and comparatively high *Family centrality* levels ($M = 4.38$, $SD = .62$). Reported levels of *Gender role ideology* were rather low ($M = 1.96$, $SD = .91$). Moderate levels of *Work-to-family conflict* ($M = 4.06$, $SD = 1.45$) were reported but were higher in in comparison to reported levels of *Family-to-work conflict* ($M = 2.52$, $SD = 1.21$).

Table 9

Descriptive Statistics for Summary Scales

Variable	N	M	SD	SE	$Skewness$	$Kurtosis$	KS
Work Centrality	368	2.63	0.80	0.04	-0.02	-0.16	.07
Family Centrality	367	4.38	0.62	0.03	-0.97	1.75	.20
Gender Role Ideology	368	1.96	0.91	0.05	0.75	-0.12	.14
Work-to-Family Conflict	369	4.06	1.45	0.08	-0.13	-0.68	.06
Family-to-Work Conflict	368	2.52	1.21	0.06	0.95	0.66	.15

Notes. N = Number of respondents after listwise deletion of missing data; M = Mean; SD = standard deviation; SE = standard error of mean; KS = Kolmogorov-Smirnov.

Correlation analysis

A Pearson product-moment correlation analysis, otherwise known as Pearson's r , with listwise deletion of missing data, was conducted to measure the extent to which work centrality, role centrality, gender role ideology, work-to-family conflict and family-to-work conflict related to each other (See Table 10). *Tenure* and *Age* were included in the correlation

analysis as previous research suggested that there might be a relationship between a father's WFC experience and these demographic variables.

Inter-correlations with work-to-family conflict and family-to-work conflict.

Contrary to expectations, *Work centrality* and *Family centrality* were not related to *W2FC* and *Family centrality* and *Work centrality* did not correlate with *F2WC* (See Table 10 for correlation analysis). Interestingly there was a negative relationship between *Family centrality* and *Age* ($r = -.20, p < .01$) indicating that as *Age* increases, *Family centrality* decreases.

Table 10

Mean, Standard Deviation and Correlation Analysis for Indicators

Variable	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. <i>Work centrality</i>	2.63	.80	(0.80)						
2. <i>Family centrality</i>	4.38	.62	-.26**	(0.89)					
3. <i>GRI</i>	1.96	.91	.03	-.04	(0.90)				
4. <i>W2FC</i>	4.05	1.46	-.01	.09	-.04	(0.92)			
5. <i>F2WC</i>	2.51	1.21	.04	.02	.04	.35**	(0.90)		
6. <i>Tenure</i>	124.65	2176.90	.01	.05	.12*	-.03	.00		
7. <i>Age</i>	41.70	9.15	.15**	-.20**	-.01	-.05	-.10	.03	

Note. $N = 367$ after listwise deletion of missing data: Each items' significance correlations are presented in bold face; * $p \leq 0.05$; ** $p \leq 0.01$; Cronbach's Alpha reflected on the diagonal, M = mean; SD = standard deviation.

Multiple regression analysis

A three step hierarchical regression analysis was performed to evaluate the extent to which *Role centrality* predicted *Family-to-work conflict (F2WC)* and *Work-to-family conflict (W2FC)* beyond that explained by the control variables. Furthermore the extent to which *Gender role ideology* moderates these relationships was also tested. The proportion of variance in the dependent variable was assessed by two or more independent variables, known as the coefficient of multiple determination (R^2) (Burns & Burns, 2008; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Higher R^2 values indicate greater variance explained by the independent variable (Burns & Burns, 2008). Unstandardized regression coefficients (B) are reported in

the Tables, and standardised regression coefficients (β) are reported in-text (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007).

To determine the interaction, variables were first created by subtracting the mean from each predictor variable. The centred variables were entered into step two of the hierarchical regression models (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Next interaction product terms were created between the centred continuous independent variables and the centred continuous moderating variables and entered into step three of the model (Aiken & West, 1991) first with *Family-to-work conflict* as the dependent variable (See Table 11) and then with *Work-to-family conflict* as the dependent variable (See Table 12).

For the results of the significant interaction effects in step 3, visual representations of the simple slopes are presented, following Aiken and West's (1991) regression procedure (Carr, Boyar, & Gregory, 2008) (See Figures 2 and 3).

Role centrality as an antecedent of family-to-work conflict.

Hierarchical multiple regression analysis was performed to determine if *Family centrality* and *Work centrality* explained levels of *F2WC* beyond that explained by the control variables. A three step model was used. The first step introduced the two control variables, *Age* and *Tenure*. The second step added the centred role centrality variables, *Family centrality*, and *Work centrality*, and *Gender role ideology*. The third step entered the interaction terms *Family centrality* x *Gender role ideology* and *Work centrality* x *Gender role ideology*.

Table 11 presents the regression model and indicates the unstandardized coefficients (B), R , R^2 , and adjusted R^2 after entry of all variables. After Step 3, with all the predictors in the equation, $R^2 = .06$ (adjusted $R^2 = .04$), $F_{\text{inc}}(7, 357) = 8.03$, $p < .001$, indicating that the model was significant.

After step 1, with the demographic control variables entered into the model, $R^2 = .01$, $F_{\text{inc}}(2, 362) = 1.64$, $p = 0.19$; n.s. The demographic variables did not significantly account for variance in *F2WC*. After step 2, the centred variables created for *Family centrality*, *Work*

centrality and *Gender role ideology* were added to the model, $R^2 = .01$, $F_{inc}(5, 359) = 0.56$, $p = 0.64$; n.s. The addition of the centred variables did not result in a significant increment in R^2 . Thus, no within-domain relationship was present, as *Family centrality* did not significantly explain a proportion of $F2WC$. Therefore support was not found for proposition 1a. No cross-domain relationship was found between *Work centrality* ($Beta = .06$, $p = .262$ n.s) and $F2WC$. Therefore no support was found for proposition 1b.

After step 3, the interactions between the moderator variable and the independent variables were added to the equation, $R^2 = .06$ (adjusted $R^2 = .04$), $F_{inc}(7, 357) = 8.03$, $p < .001$. The addition of *Gender role ideology* to the model did improve R^2 . *Family centrality* x *Gender role ideology* ($Beta = -.222$, $p < .001$) significantly contributed to the explained variance in $F2WC$ (See Figure 2), finding a within-domain relationship. Thus proposition 3a was supported. *Work centrality* x *Gender role ideology* ($Beta = -.040$, $p = .476$ n.s) did not significantly contribute to the explained variance in $F2WC$, therefore no cross-domain relationship was found. Thus support was not established for proposition 3b.

Table 11

Hierarchical Multiple Regression: Summary for Dependent Variable Family- to-work Conflict

Variable	Step 1 Control Variables		Step 2 Direct Effect		Step 3 Interactions	
	<i>B</i>	95% CI	<i>B</i>	95% CI	<i>B</i>	95% CI
Age	-.01	[-.03, .00]	-.01	[-.03, .00]	-.01*	[-.03, .00]
Tenure	.00	[.00, .00]	.00	[.00, .00]	.00	[.00, .00]
Family centrality			.02	[-.20, .25]	.05	[-.17, .28]
Work centrality			.09	[-.07, .26]	.11	[-.05, .27]
GRI			.04	[-.09, .18]	.08	[-.06, .21]
Family centrality x GRI					-.54***	[-.81, -.27]
Work centrality x GRI					-.07	[-.25, .12]
R	0.095		0.117		0.237	
R ²	0.009**		0.014**		0.056	
Adjusted R ²	0.004**		0.000***		0.038*	
Change in R ²	0.009**		0.005**		0.042*	

Note. $N = 365$ (after listwise deletion of missing variables). CI = confidence interval. B = unstandardized beta, GRI = Gender role ideology. * $p \leq .05$ ** $p \leq .01$ *** $p \leq .001$.

Role centrality as an antecedent of work-to-family conflict.

Hierarchical multiple regression analysis was performed to determine if *Family centrality* and *Work centrality* explained levels of *W2FC* beyond that explained by the control variables. A three step model was used. The first step introduced the two control variables, *Age* and *Tenure*. The second step added the centred role centrality variables, *Family centrality*, and *Work centrality*, and *Gender role ideology*. The third step entered the interaction terms *Family centrality* x *Gender role ideology* and *Work centrality* x *Gender role ideology*.

Table 12 presents the regression model and indicates the unstandardized coefficients (*B*), *R*, R^2 , and adjusted R^2 after entry of all variables. After Step 3, with all the predictors in the equation, $R^2 = .03$ (adjusted $R^2 = .01$), $F_{\text{inc}}(7, 357) = 2.88$, $p = .058$, indicating that the model was not significant.

After step 1, with the demographic control variables entered into the model, $R^2 = .003$, $F_{\text{inc}}(2, 362) = 0.60$, $p = 0.55$ n.s. The demographic variables did not significantly account for variance in *W2FC*. After step two, centred variables, *Work centrality*, *Family centrality* and *Gender role ideology* were added to the model, $R^2 = .01$, $F_{\text{inc}}(5, 359) = 1.33$, $p = 0.27$ n.s. The addition of the centred variables to the equation did not result in a significant increment in R^2 . *Work centrality* did not significantly explain a proportion of *W2FC*. Thus no within-domain relationship was evident. Based on these findings proposition 2a was not supported. Furthermore, the findings indicated that there was no cross-domain relationship between *Family centrality* ($Beta = .10$, $p = .08$ n.s) and *W2FC*. Proposition 2b was not supported.

After step three, the interactions between the moderator variable and the independent variables added to model, $R^2 = .03$ (adjusted $R^2 = .01$), $F_{\text{inc}}(7, 357) = 2.88$, $p = .058$. The addition of *Gender role ideology* to the equation did not significantly improve R^2 , when using $p < .05$, although it was trending on significant. *Work centrality* x *Gender role ideology* ($Beta = -.01$, $p = .87$ n.s) did not significantly contribute to the explained variance in *W2FC*. Thus proposition 4a was not supported. *Family centrality* x *Gender role ideology* ($Beta = -.13$, $p <$

.05) significantly contributed to the explained variance in *W2FC* (See Figure 3), finding a cross-domain relationship. Thereby providing support for proposition 4b.

Table 12

Hierarchical Multiple Regression: Summary for Dependent Variable Work-to-family Conflict.

	Step 1 Control Variables		Step 2 Direct Effect		Step 3 Interactions	
Variable	<i>B</i>	95% CI	<i>B</i>	95% CI	<i>B</i>	95% CI
Age	-.01	[-.02, .01]	-.01	[-.02, .01]	-.01	[-.02, .01]
Tenure	.00	[.00, .00]	.00	[.00, .00]	.00	[.00, .00]
Family centrality			.25	[-.03, .52]	.27	[-.01, .54]
Work centrality			.03	[-.16, .23]	.05	[-.15, .24]
GRI			-.07	[-.24, .10]	-.04	[-.21, .13]
Family centrality x GRI					-.38*	[-.71, -.05]
Work centrality x GRI					-.02	[-.25, .21]
R	0.058		0.119		0.173	
R ²	0.003**		0.014**		0.030*	
Adjusted R ²	-0.002**		0.000***		0.011**	
Change in R ²	0.003**		0.011*		0.016*	

Note. *N* = 365 (after listwise deletion of missing variables). CI = confidence interval. *B* = unstandardized beta. GRI = Gender role ideology. **p* ≤ .05 ***p* ≤ .01 ****p* ≤ .001.

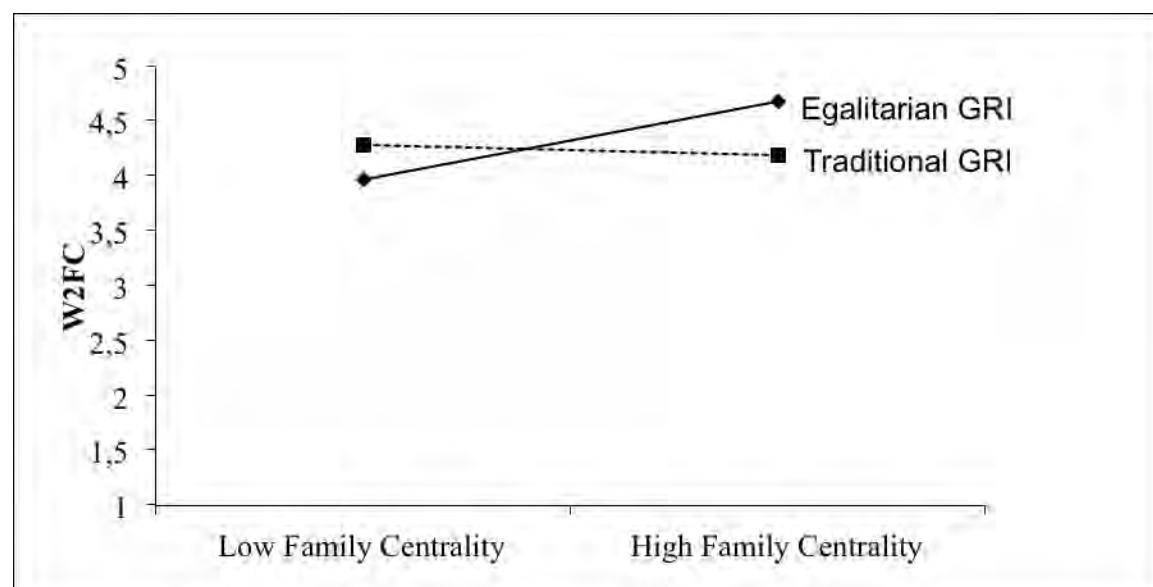


Figure 2. Family Centrality and Gender Role Ideology (GRI) Interaction in Predicting W2FC.

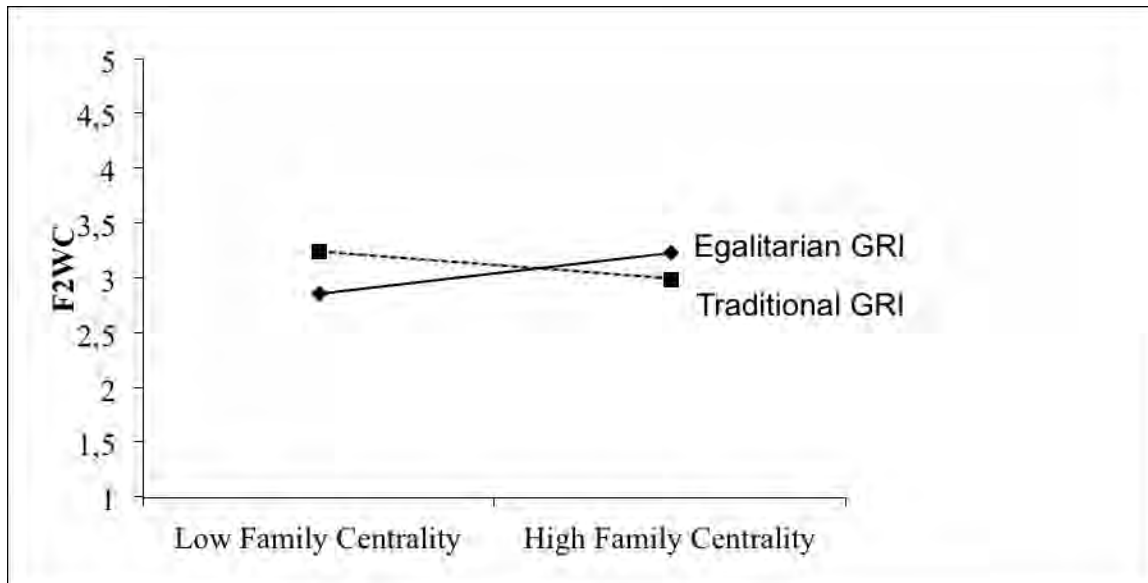


Figure 3. Family Centrality and Gender Role Ideology (GRI) Interaction in Predicting F2WC.

A positive linear relationship between the variables was evident, after normalised plots were drawn (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). The assumption of multicollinearity was satisfied as all independent variables, *Family centrality*, *Work centrality* and *Gender role ideology* were below the conventional cut-off of $r < 0.90$ in a sample of 369, thus no two variables were measuring the same variance in the regression model (Hair et al., 2013). Two cases, case 68 and case 83, were identified as multivariate outliers and removed (See Method section for details of the cases). VIF values fell below the conventional threshold of 10.00, in a sample of 369, indicating that collinearity amongst *Family centrality*, *Work centrality* and *Gender role ideology* would not negatively impact on the suggested predictions (Burns & Burns, 2008; Hair et al., 2013). Therefore meeting the assumptions of multiple regression (Hair et al., 2013).

Post-hoc power for multiple hierarchical regression analysis was conducted using GPower (Erdfelder et al., 1996) on a sample of 369 with a total of seven predictors in step two. The post-hoc analysis revealed the effect size for the dependent variable *F2WC* in this study was 0.056, suggesting that there was a small effect size (Cohen, 1977). The post-hoc analysis employed on *W2FC* indicated a small effect size of 0.03 on a sample of 369 with seven predictors added in step two (Cohen, 1977). These low power scores suggest the

inadequate power of the regression model, to detect significant results for a large effect size (Cohen, 1977).

Based on the examination of the multiple regression assumptions for the model with the interaction terms included, all the assumptions were met. Ratio to cases of 20:1, supported the employment of factor analysis (Hair et al., 2013). The inspection of the histogram and mean probability plots of the standardised residual indicated that the residual distribution did not deviate severely from normality (See appendix G) (Hair et al., 2013; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). No major discrepancies from collinearity and the variance of the residuals about the predicted W2FC and F2WC scores were evident. All regression analyses that are presented in the results section are based on the new sample size of 369.

Final notes

The purpose of this section was to test the propositions outlined in the literature review section. Exploratory factor analysis confirmed the unidimensionality of the gender role ideology scale and the bi-dimensionality of the role centrality and work-family conflict scales. The results of this study show no support for the direct predictive effects of *Family centrality* and *Work centrality*. They do however confirm that *Gender role ideology* has a moderating effect on the role centrality-WFC relationship. Specifically, *Gender role ideology* interacted with family role centrality in predicting both *F2WC* and *W2FC*. These results highlight the importance of examining cross-domain relationships in WFC research to gain an improved understanding of the factors contributing the WFC experiences for working fathers in South Africa. Table 13 provides a summary of the main findings of this study based on the analysis of these results; with reference to the propositions outlined in the literature review section.

Table 13

Propositions and Summary of Results

Proposition	Data Analysis Technique	Level of Support
1a. <i>Family centrality</i> explains a significant proportion of variance in <i>F2WC</i> among working fathers in SA.	Hierarchical multiple regression	Not supported
1b. <i>Work centrality</i> explains a significant proportion of variance in <i>F2WC</i> among working fathers in SA.	Hierarchical multiple regression	Not supported
2a. <i>Work centrality</i> explains a significant proportion of variance in <i>W2FC</i> among working fathers in SA.	Hierarchical multiple regression	Not supported
2b. <i>Family centrality</i> explains a significant proportion of variance in <i>W2FC</i> among working fathers in SA.	Hierarchical multiple regression	Not supported
3a. <i>Gender role ideology</i> moderates the relationship between <i>Family centrality</i> and <i>F2WC</i> among working fathers in SA.	Hierarchical multiple regression	Supported
3b. <i>Gender role ideology</i> moderates the relationship between <i>Work centrality</i> and <i>F2WC</i> among working fathers in SA.	Hierarchical multiple regression	Not supported
4a. <i>Gender role ideology</i> moderates the relationship between <i>Work centrality</i> and <i>W2FC</i> among working fathers in SA.	Hierarchical multiple regression	Not supported
4b. <i>Gender role ideology</i> moderates the relationship between <i>Family centrality</i> and <i>W2FC</i> among working fathers in SA.	Hierarchical multiple regression	Supported

Discussion

The aim of this study was to investigate the extent to which role centrality explains variance in work-to-family (W2FC) conflict and family-to-work conflict (F2WC) and to examine the potential cross-domain relationships between role centrality and work-family conflict (WFC). The current section presents a discussion of the results with specific reference to the propositions of the study and current literature on work-family conflict and role centrality. Management implications and suggestions for future research are discussed.

Psychometric Properties and Portability of Scales

EFA results confirmed the bi-directionality of Netemeyer et al.'s (1996) WFC measure. This is consistent with the use of the scale cross-culturally (Byron, 2003; Ford et al., 2007; Kossek et al., 2012; Netemeyer, Brashear-Alejandro, & Boles, 2004). The reliability and validity findings of this measure support its probability across cultural contexts in measuring the bi-directional WFC construct. Consistent with past research on role centrality dimensionality, two distinct constructs emerged through EFA, confirming the application of Paullay et al.'s (1996) centrality scale being transported cross culturally.

Levels of Self-reported Work-Family Conflict among Working Fathers in South Africa

Reported levels of W2FC amongst working fathers in South Africa were slightly above the midpoint of 4.00 on a 7-point scale ($M = 4.05$). Interestingly, self-reported levels of F2WC were below the midpoint of 4.00 on a 7-point scale ($M = 2.52$). With reference to the above, higher levels of self-reported W2FC have likewise been reported in other English-speaking samples and similar cultural contexts (Eby, Casper, Lockwood, Bordeaux, & Brinley, 2005; Somech & Drach-Zahavy, 2007). Amstad et al. (2011) explain that family boundaries are more susceptible to work influences, than work boundaries are to family influences. Lower self-reported levels of F2WC could be associated with increased paid domestic support in South Africa, thus reducing time-strain and role overload for working fathers in South Africa. Researchers have found that in gender traditional contexts, where patriarchal values are prominent, and paid help is relatively inexpensive and accessible, paid

domestic support is perceived as an important resource in assisting employees to negotiate the work-family conflict interface (Cárdenas et al., 2013; Kailasapathy & Metz, 2013).

This study's findings corroborate Somech and Drach-Zahavy's (2007) findings, that working fathers are more likely to experience greater W2FC than F2WC due to the increased control one has over the family domain. Family role centrality ($M = 4.38$) was slightly above the midpoint of 4.00 but considerably higher than work role centrality ($M = 2.63$), which fell below the midpoint. Involvement in one's family role was viewed as resource draining and contributed to W2FC experiences. In addition to the influence of domestic support, it is likely that increased reported levels of W2FC opposed to F2WC could be explained by the economic conditions in South Africa. As follows, employees may have a greater sense of awareness of the financial implications of their work role. Working fathers therefore ensure that their family demands do not permeate their work domain, in order to protect their financial contribution to their family (Patel, Govender, Paruk, & Ramgoon, 2006).

The relationship between role centrality and work- to-family conflict.

Respondents reported lower levels of work centrality than family centrality levels ($M = 2.62$; $M = 4.40$), suggesting that South African fathers in this study find family to be the most central role in their life. In this study work centrality did not predict W2FC, this finding is inconsistent with past research which suggests that men are more likely to take their work home with them, thereby allowing their work demands to spill over into their family domain, thus increasing levels of W2FC (Ford et al., 2007). This provides unique knowledge into the relationship between the work and family domains within South Africa at the present time. A plausible reason for this inconsistency is that paid support within the work domain and family domain has been found to decrease levels of W2FC (Ford et al., 2007; Somech & Drach-Zahavy, 2007). In South Africa, organisations are implementing more family-friendly policies and offering increased supervisor support, which could contribute to the reduced levels of work centrality explaining W2FC (Rothmann & Rothmann Jr, 2010).

In the current study it was determined that there was not a cross-domain relationship between family centrality and W2FC, as family centrality did not explain a significant proportion in W2FC. This finding may be explained by Ford et al. (2007) who found that

family stressors are less likely to crossover into the work domain. In addition, Bagger et al. (2014) found that work and family centrality, significantly predicted levels of W2FC, particularly time-based WFC for an American sample of working parents ($N = 90$). The discrepancy between Bagger et al. (2014) and the findings of the current study could be attributed to the different cultural dynamics of the samples. McShane and Von Glinow (2009) find that cross-cultural values describe the degree to which people in a specific culture emphasise particular values and behaviours. It is suggested that South Africa consists of an amalgamation of diverse cultures and traditions, which could account for the different findings of the present study and studies conducted outside of South Africa. Moreover, the focus on only one element of WFC, time-based conflict, could account for the difference in the within-domain and cross-domain relationships. Consistent with Luk and Shaffer's (2005) findings, on the lack of cross-domain relationships between family centrality and W2FC, a proposed reason is that men (the sample of this present study) balance their family and work identity, without prioritising one over the other. Domestic support has been found to buffer the direct relationship between antecedents of WFC (Luk & Shaffer, 2005). As previously mentioned, in South Africa domestic support is widely utilised, which could explain the lack of within-domain and cross-domain relationships between role centrality and WFC.

Despite no cross-domain relationship being found between family centrality and W2FC, interestingly when family centrality interacted with gender role ideology, a significant cross-domain relationship was found in explaining W2FC levels. This finding first suggests that in isolation, no significant cross-domain relationship was present between family centrality and W2FC; however, through family centrality's interaction with gender-role ideology, a meaningful relationship was established between family centrality and W2FC. This means that in the condition of high family centrality levels and an egalitarian gender role ideology, increased levels of W2FC were reported. This implies that fathers who have an egalitarian gender-role ideology and have a low-level family centrality are more likely to experience reduced W2FC than those in the condition of low family centrality and a traditional gender role ideology reported increased levels of W2FC.

This cross-domain relationship (family centrality, gender-role ideology and W2FC) is particularly interesting as it was established that there was not a within-domain relationship between work centrality and W2FC.

This unique cross-domain relationship between family centrality and W2FC with gender-role ideology as a moderator could have occurred as a result of the legislative promoted in the egalitarian constitution implemented in South Africa, highlighting equal access in employment and equal rights regardless of one's gender identity. Since the implementation of the egalitarian constitution, a shifting of gender norms regarding gender roles is occurring.

As these fathers work within white-collar environments, they are stringently governed by the constitution promoting equal rights for all employees regardless of gender. It is possible that the egalitarian constitution contributes to the cross-domain relationship between family centrality and W2FC, which only occurs when gender role ideology is present as a moderator.

The relationship between role centrality and family-to-work conflict.

High family centrality levels were reported, above the midpoint of 3.00 on a 5-point scale ($M = 4.40$), indicating that fathers found their family role to be the most central role in their lives, with work coming in second place. This finding contradicts past work-family research, as traditionally the working father, values work and follows the breadwinner model, of being the provider and women the primary caregiver. This discrepancy could be attributed to the changing nature of work in South Africa. More women are entering the workforce, resulting in a shift in the gender role ideologies of men, and changing the traditional breadwinner model (Carrasco et al., 2014; Mathur-Helm, 2002). The changing breadwinner model is highlighted in the egalitarian post democratic South African constitution, which ensures equal access and treatment of all employees regardless of their gender in the workforce.

Despite previous research finding a positive relationship between increased family centrality and increased self-reported levels of F2WC (Luk & Shaffer, 2005; Michal et al., 2011), these findings were not supported by this study. In addition contrary to past research finding high family centrality to explain a significant proportion of F2WC, no such findings were presented in this study. The increased levels of support experienced in white-collar South African organisations could explain this asymmetrical finding. In particular, paid

domestic support has been found to reduce levels of role overload and role conflict for working parents (Somech & Drach-Zahavy, 2007). Fathers are able to delegate some of their responsibilities to paid caregivers and domestic support, thus easing their family responsibility burden. Another possible reason for the absence of within-domain relationships of F2WC could have resulted from questionnaires being completed at work, and therefore respondents might have been hesitant to admit the extent to which their family responsibilities impacted on their work, despite anonymity being guaranteed.

Despite the fact that according to Khan et al.'s (1964) role stress theory, stressors from one domain, such as the work domain, can influence stressors in another domain, such as the family domain, no cross-domain relationship was found between work centrality and F2WC. Contrary to role stress theory, but in line with border theory (Clark, 2000), it is suggested that working fathers in South Africa are more likely to create a boundary between their work and their home. This was evident in studies conducted in Israel (Somech & Drach-Zahavy, 2007) and a meta-analysis conducted by Ford et al. (2007) and a review by Eby et al. (2005), which stated that men separated their work and family domains. It is proposed that the lack of cross-domain relationship in this study could be a result of the harsh economic conditions in South Africa. These strenuous economic conditions could result in the necessity for fathers to ensure that their family domain does not crossover into their work domain, which could have a negative impact on their earning potential and or job security.

When family centrality interacted with gender-role ideology a significant relationship emerged in predicting levels of F2WC. This means that fathers with a more egalitarian gender role ideology, and a high self-reported family centrality level, reported decreased levels of F2WC. In the condition of high family centrality and a traditional gender role ideology, reported increased levels of F2WC. Interestingly when gender-role ideology is removed from the relationship, the model becomes insignificant indicating that family centrality does not significantly predict WFC. In the condition of low family centrality and a traditional gender role ideology decreased levels of F2WC were reported. In contrast, in the condition of high family centrality and a traditional gender role ideology, increased levels of F2WC were reported.

The within-domain relationship between family centrality and F2WC with gender-role ideology as a moderator, highlights the egalitarian gender-role ideology of these South African working fathers in the study, which could be a result of the gender egalitarian constitution implemented in South Africa. Moreover, the changing societal roles within white-collar working environments could be impacting positively on the home domain by fostering an environment in which fathers are no longer drawing on a hegemonic patriarchal understanding of the roles of men, but rather transforming the traditional breadwinner model. This within-domain relationship could have emerged as the sample of this study was working fathers. Their gender-role ideology might not be as traditional as could be expected from men, who do not have children, in the South African workforce. It appears that no prior research studies have examined the moderating effect of gender-role ideology on the relationship between family centrality and F2WC.

Contributions of this Study

The study adds to the understanding of WFC among white-collar working fathers in South Africa by means of contributing to theory and practical implications for management. This section discusses each contribution below.

Theoretical contributions.

This study is the first in South Africa to empirically investigate role centrality as an antecedent of WFC amongst working fathers. It is also the first study to examine cross-domain relationships between role centrality and WFC as well as interaction relationships between gender-role ideology and WFC. The findings of this research contribute to our understanding of anticipated WFC in a number of meaningful ways, which are discussed in detail below.

First, despite limited past research finding evidence that role centrality significantly predicted levels of WFC, no such findings emerged amongst this sample of South African fathers. Given the restricted research on role centrality and WFC, this finding helps expand our knowledge of antecedents of WFC amongst working fathers in a South African context.

Second, the interaction of family centrality and gender role ideology explained a significant proportion of variance in both F2WC (within-domain) and W2FC (cross-domain). This resulted in two new contributions to existing work-family literature. First, an interaction effect emerged, which has not been examined in past research. This finding suggests that when working fathers in South Africa reported high levels of family centrality and an egalitarian gender-role ideology they reported decreased levels of F2WC. This extends knowledge on the breadwinner model which is often used for understanding WFC, by increasing our awareness of the changing gender-roles that working fathers are embodying.

The second new interaction finding was the cross-domain relationship between work centrality, gender-role ideology and F2WC that emerged. Given the limited research on cross-domain relationships, this research increases our awareness of potential cross-domain relationships between work centrality and F2WC when interacting with working father's gender role ideology. Moreover, these cross-domain relationships highlight potential antecedents, such as work centrality, which traditionally is associated with increased self-reported levels of W2FC, having a negative impact on F2WC too. Future research should explore these cross-domain relationships amongst different samples.

It is interesting that there was not a direct relationship between work and family centrality and W2FC or F2WC. Moreover, W2FC was not found to be a significant predictor in this research, adding to our partial understanding of work-family conflict in South Africa. With the advancement in work-family research, the examination of interaction effects with gender-role ideology contributes to our theoretical understanding of the relationship between the antecedent role centrality and WFC among South African working fathers.

An empirical contribution to the understanding of WFC is the focus on working fathers. Previous research has focused either only on women, or mixed samples, however this research provides insight to the limited number of studies that focus exclusively on fathers in South African work-family literature. This research provides insight into the role centrality levels of working fathers in South Africa and how their gender-role ideology contributes to their reported levels of WFC, which could assist in reducing the negative outcomes associated with WFC.

Practical implications for management.

As working fathers' gender role ideology transforms from the traditional breadwinner role to a more egalitarian ideology, in which roles in the home are shared equally between spouses, it is evident that levels of F2WC are increasing. Particular consideration needs to be paid to the gender-role ideology of working fathers, as no evidence was found for direct relationships between role centrality as a predictor of WFC in isolation. Instead, it is only, when role centrality interacted with gender role ideology that altering levels of F2WC were reported. Results from this study provide evidence of the fact that working fathers are more likely to allow their family life to impact on their work life than vice versa. The following section outlines organisational policies and practices, which could be implemented by managers at work to increase diversity awareness.

Leadership and teamwork.

Diversity management research has highlighted the need for organisations to take cognisance of the different skills needed to manage and work within diverse groups, as well as create an organisational culture of inclusion of all employees in both formal and informal organisational programmes (Ashkanasy, Härtel, & Daus, 2002; Ivancevich, & Gilbert, 2000). With reference to the above, Coleman (2005) explained that it is more likely that female leaders will take on family responsibilities in conjunction with their leadership role than male leaders. As the gender role ideology of working fathers is changing, fathers taking on more responsibilities at home, and societal expectations of men and women are adapting, more mothers entering the workforce, management should examine the potential impact that this may have on fathers and their leadership styles. The negative impact of role overload and general well-being that women leaders have experienced in the past, when taking on leadership positions in addition to their family responsibilities, should now be applied to fathers who hold a more egalitarian gender role ideology. Having a diverse workforce has been found to be associated with a competitive advantage. Through creating increased awareness of fathers who hold an egalitarian gender role, teamwork and performance could be increased (Jackson, Joshi, & Erhardt, 2003).

South Africa is forced to compete at an optimal level globally. With the increased movement of labour across countries, the management of diverse workforces and diversity management of employees, it is vital to ensure a cohesive workforce, increased creativity and innovation, all of which have been linked to increasing an organisation's competitive advantage (Bassett-Jones, 2005).

Sensitivity training and systematic change.

Another organisational intervention that should be considered relates to training that is focused on changing employees' attitudes and behaviours towards fathers who hold an egalitarian gender role ideology. Jackson et al. (2003) found that training specific teams to manage and use their unique diversity could be more efficient than training individuals could. In order for training and diversity interventions to be accepted, support from senior management is required. The change in workforce dynamics, and particularly the changing nature of South African working fathers in white-collar environments, implores on organisations to alter their policies, corporate culture and practices to accommodate fathers. Cox (1993) explains that diversity interventions extend past the mere implementation of the programme, in order to develop an organisational culture where differences are used to facilitate learning new practices that lead to a more productive workforce (Stahl, Maznevski, Voigt, & Jonsen, 2010). Through gaining support from senior management, the entire organisation is transformed and it is possible to foster an inclusive environment for fathers who hold an egalitarian gender-role ideology.

Recommendations for Future Research

In this study, role centrality and gender role ideology were examined as antecedents of WFC and particular focus was placed on the examination of the moderating effect of gender-role ideology on the relationship between role centrality and WFC. It is recommended that future research investigate whether these results can be generalised across different cultures and if gender-role ideology has an interaction effect amongst other unique cultures and job contexts such as, Xhosa working fathers in South Africa. In addition, with the changing nature of both work and workforce, future research should examine potential

diversity programmes that could be implemented in organisation to decrease the negative outcomes of both W2FC and F2WC.

By investigating the interaction effect of gender-role ideology as a moderating variable between role centrality and WFC, researchers are better able to understand the complex phenomenon of WFC and implement strategies to reduce the negative outcomes associated with WFC. Furthermore there is a shortage of research on the cross-domain relationship between antecedents of WFC and their interaction with gender-role ideology in understanding WFC. It is therefore suggested that researchers examine the potential cross-domain and within-domain relationships between antecedents of WFC when interacting with gender-role ideology in different culturally dynamic contexts in South Africa. Researchers could examine the moderating effect of gender role ideology on the relationship between spousal and supervisor support and WFC amongst Zulu fathers in South Africa.

Another avenue researchers might explore is the outcomes of WFC when antecedents of WFC interact with gender role ideology. In particular family related outcomes, work-related outcomes and domain unspecific outcomes (Amstad et al., 2011) and the potential mediators and moderators of these relationships could be examined. Such constructs may include parenthood, gender-role ideology and personality, which could help employers in understanding particular interventions that could be implemented to reduce negative outcomes of WFC.

This study focused on the negative effects of inter-role conflict that working fathers experience, however research verifies a positive aspect of work-family literature (Amstad et al., 2011). It is suggested that future research examines the positive aspects of work-family balance amongst working fathers and examine the potential interaction effect that gender role ideology might have in understanding work-family enrichment.

A limitation associated with this study relates to its cross-sectional nature, as the aim of this study was to investigate the relationship that role centrality has on W2FC, F2WC and potential cross-domain relationships for working fathers in South Africa. The results of the study can therefore not be generalised to other samples and no causal claims can be made (Salkind, 2009). Future research should conduct longitudinal studies to determine causal

claims of directions between role centrality and WFC, which a cross-sectional design does not account for (Salkind, 2009). Replications of this study across South Africa and in different working samples would be beneficial in adding support to the preliminary findings of this study. Aryee, Srinivas, and Tan (2005) noted that a longitudinal design should only be implemented if the optimal time period for a given relationship is known. If incorrectly determined, implementing a longitudinal design may result in more biases than a cross-sectional design would produce (Aryee, et al., 2005).

Finally, this study utilised self-reported measures to gather data, which could result in common method and consistency bias (Aryee et al., 2005; Podsakoff, Mackenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). This study aimed to reduce common method bias by allowing the participants to remain anonymous and indicated on the cover letter that there was no right or wrong answer in the attempt to reduce evaluation apprehension (Podsakoff et al., 2003). It is suggested that future researchers adopt a longitudinal design and collect data from multiple sources (Podsakoff et al., 2003). By collecting data from multiple sources, i.e. a working fathers' spouse, allows for different perspectives on WFC and gender role ideologies to be obtained. This will broaden researcher's understandings of the potential crossover effects of WFC, thus enhancing our understanding of the ways in which gender role ideology can impact WFC (Kailasapathy et al., 2014).

Conclusion

The leading perspective on work-family literature has been one of conflict. The two distinct directions of conflict that have been examined are W2FC and F2WC. The findings of this research corroborate past findings regarding the bi-directionality of WFC. Recent research has started examining the interaction that gender-role ideology has in understanding WFC amongst different known WFC antecedents (Somech & Drach-Zahavy, 2007). Limited explorations of cross-domain relationships have been examined, despite increasing evidence suggesting the need to understand these relationships (Ford et al., 2007). This study is the first to research the interaction effect of gender-role ideology on the relationship between role centrality and WFC as well as the potential cross-domain relationships between these two constructs. This study further provides new evidence that cross-domain relationships exist between role centrality and WFC, only when interacting with gender-role ideology.

Therefore, South African fathers in this study who reported high levels of family centrality and hold an egalitarian gender-role ideology reported both decreased levels of W2FC and F2WC.

These new findings provide a platform for further empirical research to be conducted in order to supplement work-family literature in South Africa. With the changing gender norms of men in South Africa and more women entering the formal workforce, organisations need to examine the impact that diversity programmes and interventions could have in fostering an inclusive work environment. Furthermore, through the implementation of diversity programmes and the creation of an environment in which employees' differences are celebrated and not stigmatised, the negative outcomes of WFC may be reduced.

References

- Adamsons, K., & Pasley, K. (2013). Refining identity theory to better account for relationships and context: Applications to fathering. *Journal of Family Theory & Review*, 5(3), 159-175.
- Aiken, L. S., & West, S. G. (1991). *Multiple regression: Testing and interpreting interactions*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- Allen, T. D., Cho, E., & Meier, L. L. (2014). Work–Family Boundary Dynamics. *The Annual Review of Organizational Psychology and Organizational Behaviour*, 1(1), 99-121.
- Amatea, E. S., Cross, E. G., Clark, J. E., & Bobby, C. L. (1986). Assessing the work and family role expectations of career-oriented men and women: The life role salience scales. *Journal of Marriage and the Family*, 48, 831-838.
- Amstad, F. T., Meier, L. L., Fasel, U., Elfering, A., & Semmer, N. K. (2011). A meta-analysis of work–family conflict and various outcomes with a special emphasis on cross-domain versus matching-domain relations. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 16(2), 151-169.
- Andreasson, S. (2011). Understanding corporate governance reform in South Africa Anglo-American divergence, the King Reports, and hybridization. *Business and Society*, 50(4), 647-673.
- Armstrong-Stassen, M., & Ursel, N. D. (2009). Perceived organizational support, career satisfaction, and the retention of older workers. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 82(1), 201-220.
- Aryee, S., Srinivas, E. S., & Tan, H. H. (2005). Rhythms of life: Antecedents and outcomes of work-family balance in employed parents. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 90(1), 132-146.
- Ashkanasy, N. M., Härtel, C. E., & Daus, C. S. (2002). Diversity and emotion: The new frontiers in organizational behaviour research. *Journal of Management*, 28(3), 307-338.

- Bagger, J., & Li, A. (2012). Being important matters: The impact of work and family centralities on the family-to-work conflict–satisfaction relationship. *Human Relations*, 65(4), 473-500.
- Bagger, J., Li, A., & Gutek, B. A. (2008). How much do you value your family and does it matter? The joint effects of family identity salience, family-interference-with-work, and gender. *Human Relations*, 61(2), 187-211.
- Bagger, J., Reb, J., & Li, A. (2014). Anticipated regret in time-based work-family conflict. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 29(3), 304-320.
- Barker, C. (1999). *Television, globalization and cultural identities*. Buckingham: Open University Press.
- Barnett, R. C., & Gareis, K. C. (2006). Role theory perspectives on work and family. In M. Pitt-Catsoupes, E. E. Kossek, & S. Sweet (Eds.), *The work and family handbook: Multi-disciplinary perspectives and approaches* (pp. 209-221). New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Publishers.
- Barnett, R. C., & Hyde, J. S. (2001). Women, men, work, and family. *American Psychologist*, 56(10), 781.
- Barnett, R. C., Marshall, N. L., & Singer, A. (1992). Job experience over time, multiple roles, and women's mental health: A longitudinal study. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 62(4), 634-644.
- Barnette, J. J. (2000). Effects of stem and Likert response option reversals on survey internal consistency: If you feel the need, there is a better alternative to using those negatively worded stems. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 60(3), 361-370.
- Bassett-Jones, N. (2005). The paradox of diversity management, creativity and innovation. *Creativity and Innovation Management*, 14(2), 169-175.
- Becker, G. S. (1985). Human capital, effort, and the sexual division of labour. *Journal of Labour Economics*, 3(1), 33-58.
- Biddle, B. J. (1986). Recent development in role theory. *Annual Review of Sociology*, 67-92.

- Biggs, A., & Brough, P. (2005). Investigating the moderating influences of gender upon role salience and work-family conflict. *Equal Opportunities International*, 24(2), 30-41.
- Bowen, G. L., & Pittman, J. F. (1995). *The work and family interface: Toward a contextual effects perspective*. Minneapolis, MN: National Council on Family Relations.
- Braghin, C. (2009). Time-based constraints and work-to-family conflict among working mothers. *Unpublished Master's dissertation*. University of Johannesburg, Johannesburg, South Africa.
- Brennan, R. T., Barnett, R. C., & Gareis, K. C. (2001). When she earns more than he does: A longitudinal study of dual-earner couples. *Journal of Marriage and the Family*, 63, 168-182.
- Burke, P. J. (1980). The self: Measurement requirements from an interactionist perspective. *Social Psychology Quarterly*, 43(1), 18-29.
- Burns, R. B., & Burns, R. A. (2008). *Business research methods and statistics using SPSS*. London: Sage Publications Ltd.
- Byron, K. (2005). A meta-analytic review of work-family conflict and its antecedents. *Journal of Vocational Behaviour*, 67(2), 169-198.
- Cárdenas, M. C., Eagly, A., Salgado, E., Goode, W., Heller, L. I., Jauregui, K., ... & Tunqui, R. C. (2013). Latin American female business executives: An interesting surprise. *Gender in Management: An International Journal*, 29(1), 2-24.
- Carlson, D. S., Kacmar, K. M., Wayne, J. H., & Grzywacz, J. G. (2006). Measuring the positive side of the work family interface: Development and validation of a work family enrichment scale. *Journal of Vocational Behaviour*, 68, 131-164.
- Carr, J. C., Boyar, S. L., & Gregory, B. T. (2007). The moderating effect of work-family centrality on work-family conflict, organizational attitudes, and turnover behaviour. *Journal of Management*, 1-19. DOI: 10.1177/0149206307309262
- Carrasco, A., Francoeur, C., Labelle, R., Laffarga, J., & Ruiz-Barbadillo, E. (2014). Appointing Women to Boards: Is There a Cultural Bias? *Journal of Business Ethics*, 1-16.

Cinamon, R. G. (2006). Anticipated work-family conflict: Effects of gender, self-efficacy, and family background. *The Career Development Quarterly*, 54(3), 202-215.

Cinamon, R. G. (2009). Role salience, social support, and work-family conflict among Jewish and Arab female teachers in Israel. *Journal of Career Development*, 36(2), 139-158.

Clark, S.C. (2000). Work/family border theory: A new theory of work/family balance. *Human Relations*, 53, 747-770.

Clayton, R. W., Thomas, C. H., Singh, B., & Winkel, D. E. (2014). Exercise as a means of reducing perceptions of work-family conflict: A test of the roles of self-efficacy and psychological strain. *Human Resource Management*, 1-23. DOI: 10.1002/hrm.

Cohen, J. (1977). *Statistical power analysis for the behavioural sciences* (rev. ed.). England: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc.

Cohen, J. W. (1988). *Statistical power analysis for the behavioural sciences* (2nd ed.). Hillsdale: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Coleman, M. (2005). Gender and secondary school leadership. *International Studies in Educational Administration*, 33, 3-20.

Cook, E. (1994). Role salience and multiple roles: A gender perspective. *Career Development Quarterly*, 43(1), 85-94.

Corrigall, E. A., & Konrad, A. M. (2007). Gender role attitudes and careers: A longitudinal study. *Sex Roles*, 56(11-12), 847-855.

Cox, T. Jr. (1993). *Cultural diversity in organizations: Theory, research & practice*. San Francisco: Berrett-Koehler.

Dasgupta, S., & Basu, J. (2011). Marital quality and gender role stereotype. *Psychological Studies*, 56(4), 360-367.

Dautzenberg, M. G., Diederiks, J. P., Philipsen, H., Stevens, F. C., Tan, F. E., & Vernooij-Dassen, M. J. (2000). The competing demands of paid work and parent care middle-aged daughters providing assistance to elderly parents. *Research on Aging*, 22(2), 165-187.

- De Winter, J. C. F., & Dodou, D. (2012). Factor recovery by principal axis factoring and maximum likelihood factor analysis as a function of factor pattern and sample size. *Journal of Applied Statistics*, 39(4), 695-710.
- Denton, M. L. (2004). Gender and marital decision making: Negotiating religious ideology and practice. *Social Forces*, 82, 1151–1180. DOI: 10.1353/sof.2004.0034.
- Donald, F., & Linington, J. (2008). Work/family border theory and gender role orientation in male managers. *South African Journal of Psychology*, 38(4), 659-671.
- Drago, R., & Golden, L. (2006). The role of economics in work-family research. In M. Pitt-Catsouphes, E. E. Kossek, & S. Sweet (Eds.), *The work and family handbook: Multi-disciplinary perspectives and approaches* (pp. 267-282). New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Publishers.
- Duxbury, L. E., & Higgins, C. A. (1991). Gender differences in work-family conflict. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 76(1), 60-74.
- Eagly, A. (1987). *Sex differences in social behaviour: A social-role interpretation*. Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Eagly, A.H., & Wood, W. (2012). Social role theory. In P. A. M. Van Lange, A. W. Kruglanski, & E. T. Higgins (Eds.), *Handbook of theories of social psychology* (pp. 458–476). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Eby, L. T., Casper, W. J., Lockwood, A., Bordeaux, C., & Brinley, A. (2005). Work and family research in IO/OB: Content analysis and review of the literature (1980–2002). *Journal of Vocational Behaviour*, 66(1), 124-197.
- Erdfelder, E., Faul, F., & Buchner, A. (1996). GPOWER: A general power analysis program. *Behaviour Research Methods, Instruments, & Computers*, 28(1), 1-11.
- Etzion, D., & Bailyn, L. (1994). Patterns of adjustment to career-family conflict of technically trained women in united state and Israel. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 24, 1520-1549.
- Evans, P., & Bartolome, E (1984). The changing pictures of the relationship between career and family. *Journal of Occupational Behaviour*, 5, 9-21.

Field, A. (2013). *Discovering statistics using IBM SPSS statistics*. Sage Publications Ltd.

Foley, S., Hang-Yue, N., & Lui, S. (2005). The effects of work stressors, perceived organizational support, and gender on work-family conflict in Hong Kong. *Asia Pacific Journal of Management*, 22(3), 237-256.

Ford, M. T., Heinen, B. A., & Langkamer, K. L. (2007). Work and family satisfaction and conflict: A meta-analysis of cross-domain relations. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 92(1), 57.

Fox, M. F., Fonseca, C., & Bao, J. (2011). Work and family conflict in academic science: Patterns and predictors among women and men in research universities. *Social Studies of Science*, 41(5), 715-735.

Froberg, D., Gjerdingen, D. K., & Preston, M. (1986). Multiple roles and women's mental and physical health: What have we learned? *Women & Health*, 11(2), 79-96.

Frone, M. R., Russell, M., & Cooper, M. L. (1992). Antecedents and outcomes of work-family conflict: Testing a model of the work-family interface. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 77, 65-78.

Fuwa, M. (2004). Macro-level gender inequality and the division of household labour in 22 countries. *American Sociological Review*, 69(6), 751-767.

Garland, R. (1991). The mid-point on a rating scale: Is it desirable. *Marketing Bulletin*, 2(1), 66-70.

Gaunt, R., & Benjamin, O. (2007). Job insecurity, stress and gender: The moderating role of gender ideology. *Community, Work and Family*, 10(3), 341-355.

Gaunt, R., & Scott, J. (2014). Parents' involvement in childcare do parental and work identities matter?. *Psychology of Women Quarterly*, 1-15. DOI: 0361684314533484.

Geurts, S. A., & Demerouti, E. (2003). Work/non-work interface: A review of theories and findings. *The Handbook of Work and Health Psychology*, 2, 279-312.

Gibbons, J, Hamby, B., & Dennis, W. (1997). Researching gender-role ideologies internationally and cross-culturally. *Psychology of Women Quarterly*, 21(1), 151-170.

- Glass, J. L., & Estes, S. B. (1997). The family responsive workplace. *Annual Review of Sociology*, 23(1), 289-313.
- Greenhaus, J. H., & Beutell, N. J. (1985). Sources of conflict between work and family roles. *Academy of Management Review*, 10(1), 76-88.
- Greenhaus, J. H., & Kopelman, R. E. (1981). Conflict between work and non-work roles: Implications for the career planning process. *Human Resource Planning*, 4(1), 1-10.
- Greenstein, T. N. (1995). Gender ideology, marital disruption, and the employment of married women. *Journal of Marriage and the Family*, 57, 31-42.
- Hair, J. F., Black, B., Babin, B., Anderson, R. E., & Tatham, R. L. (2013). *Multivariate data analysis*. (7th ed.). Delhi, Chennai: Prentice Hall.
- Higgins, C. A., Duxbury, L. E., & Irving, R. H. (1992). Work-family conflict in the dual-earner family. *Organizational Behaviour and Human Decision Processes*, 51, 51-75.
- Holahan, C. K., & Gilbert, L. A. (1979). Interrole conflict for working women: Careers versus jobs. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 64(1), 86-90.
- Inglehart, R. F. (2008). Changing values among Western publics from 1970-2006. *West European Politics*, 31(1-2), 130-146.
- Ivancevich, J. M., & Gilbert, J. A. (2000). Diversity management time for a new approach. *Public Personnel Management*, 29, 75-92.
- Jackman, R. (2014, July 21). White paper urges paternity leave for dads. Retrieved from: <http://www.iol.co.za/news/politics/white-paper-urges-paternity-leave-for-dads-1.1722986#.VE923JOOFy8>
- Jackson, S. E., Joshi, A., & Erhardt, N. L. (2003). Recent research on team and organizational diversity: SWOT analysis and implications. *Journal of Management*, 29(6), 801-830.
- James, J. B., Barnett, R. C., & Brennan, R. T. (1998). The psychological effects of work experiences and disagreements about gender-role beliefs in dual-earner couples: A longitudinal study. *Women's Health: Research on Gender, Behaviour, and Policy*, 4, 341-368.

- Kahn, R. L., Wolfe, D. M., Quinn, R., Snoek, J. D., & Rosenthal, R. A. (1964). *Organizational stress: Studies in role conflict and ambiguity*. New York: Wiley.
- Kailasapathy, P., Kraimer, M. L., & Metz, I. (2014). The interactive effects of leader–member exchange, gender and spouse's gender role orientation on work interference with family conflict. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 1-21. DOI: 10.1080/09585192.2014.891637
- Kailasapathy, P., & Metz, I. (2012). Work-family conflict in Sri Lanka: Negotiations of exchange relationships in family and at work. *Journal of Social Issues*, 68(4), 790-813.
- Kaiser, H. (1974). An index of factorial simplicity. *Psychometrika*, 39, 31-36.
- Kando, T. M., & Summers, W. C. (1971). The impact of work on leisure: Toward a paradigm and research strategy. *Pacific Sociological Review*, 14, 310-327.
- Kelly, E. L., Moen, P., & Tranby, E. (2011). Changing workplaces to reduce work-family conflict schedule control in a white-collar organization. *American Sociological Review*, 76(2), 265-290.
- Kluwer, E. S., Heesink, J. A., & Van De Vliert, E. (1997). The marital dynamics of conflict over the division of labour. *Journal of Marriage and the Family*, 59(3), 635-653.
- Koekemoer, E., Mostert, K., & Rothmann Jr, I. (2010). Interference between work and nonwork roles: The development of a new South African instrument. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology*, 36(1), 1-14.
- Korabik, K., McElwain, A. & Chappell, D. (2008). Integrating gender-related issues into research on work and family. In K. Korabik, D. Lero, & D. Whitehead. (Eds.), *Handbook of Work-Family Integration: Research, Theory, and Best Practices* (pp. 215-232). New York: Elsevier.
- Kossek, E. E., Ruderman, M. N., Braddy, P. W., & Hannum, K. M. (2012). Work–nonwork boundary management profiles: A person-centred approach. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 81, 112-128.
- Kulik, L., & Rayyan, F. (2006). Relationships between dual-earner spouses, strategies for coping with home-work demands and emotional well-being. *Community, Work and Family*, 9, 457-477.

- Lavee, Y., & Katz, R. (2002). Division of labour, perceived fairness, and marital quality: The effect of gender ideology. *Journal of Marriage and Family*, 64(1), 27-39.
- Livingston, B. A., & Judge, T. A. (2008). Emotional responses to work-family conflict: An examination of gender role orientation among working men and women. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 93(1), 207-216. DOI: 10.1037/0021-9010.93.1.207
- Luk, D. M., & Shaffer, M. A. (2005). Work and family domain stressors and support: Within-and cross-domain influences on work-family conflict. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 78(4), 489-508.
- Lyness, K. S., & Judiesch, M. K. (2014). Gender egalitarianism and work-life balance for managers: Multisource perspectives in 36 countries. *Applied Psychology*, 63(1), 96-129.
- Maithani, A., Misra, M., Potnis, S., & Bhuwania, S. (2012). The effect of gender on perception of glass ceiling, mediated by SRO and attitude toward women as managers. *Management and Labour Studies*, 37(2), 107-123.
- Mannheim, B. (1993). Gender and the effects of demographics, status, and work values on work centrality. *Work and Occupations*, 20(1), 3-22.
- Mannheim, B., & Schiffrin, M. (1984). Family structure, job characteristics, rewards and strains as related to work-role centrality of employed and self-employed professional women with children. *Journal of Organizational Behaviour*, 5(2), 83-101.
- Markham, S. K., Ward, S. J., Aiman-Smith, L., & Kingon, A. I. (2010). The valley of death as context for role theory in product innovation. *Journal of Product Innovation Management*, 27(3), 402-417.
- Marks, S. R. (1977). Multiple roles and role strain: Some notes on human energy, time and commitment. *American Sociological Review*, 42, 921-936.
- Mathur-Helm, B. (2002). Expatriate women managers: At the cross roads of success, challenges and career goals. *Women in Management Review*, 17(1), 18-28.
- McCall, G.J., & Simmons, J.L. (1966). *Identities and interactions*. New York: Free Press.

- McLaughlin, K., & Muldoon, O. (2014). Father identity, involvement and work–family balance: An in-depth interview study. *Journal of Community and Applied Social Psychology*, 1-14. DOI: 10.1002/casp.2183.
- McQuillan, J., Greil, A. L., Shreffler, K. M., & Bedrous, A. V. (2014). The importance of motherhood and fertility intentions among US Women. *Sociological Perspectives*, 1-16. DOI: 0731121414534393.
- McShane, S. L., & Von Glinow, M. A. (2009). *Organizational behaviour* (2nd ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill/Irwin.
- Mead, G. (1934). *Mind, self, and society: From the standpoint of a social behaviourist*. Chicago: Chicago Press.
- Mesmer-Magnus, J. R., & Viswesvaran, C. (2005). Convergence between measures of work-to-family and family-to-work conflict: A meta-analytic examination. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 67(2), 215-232.
- Michel, J. S., Kotrba, L. M., Mitchelson, J. K., Clark, M. A., & Baltes, B. B. (2011). Antecedents of work–family conflict: A meta-analytic review. *Journal of Organizational Behaviour*, 32(5), 689-725.
- Morrell, R. (2006). Fathers, fatherhood and masculinity in South Africa. In L. Richter, & R. Morrell (Eds.), *BABA: Men and fatherhood in South Africa* (pp. 13-25). Cape Town, South Africa: HSRC Press.
- Morrell, R. & Richter, L. (2006). Introduction. In L. Richter, & R. Morrell (Eds.), *BABA: Men and fatherhood in South Africa* (pp. 1-12). Cape Town, South Africa: HSRC Press.
- Murenga, G. (2010). In conversation with Jane Bennett: Masculinities and gender based violence. *Feminist Africa*, 14, 93-102.
- Netemeyer, R. G., Boles, J. S., & McMurrian, R. (1996). Development and validation of work–family conflict and family–work conflict scales. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 81(4), 400-410.
- Netemeyer, R. G., Brashear-Alejandro, T., & Boles, J. S. (2004). A cross-national model of job-related outcomes of work role and family role variables: A retail sales context. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 32(1), 49-60.

Pallant, J. (2005). *SPSS survival manual: A step by step guide to data analysis using SPSS*. McGraw-Hill International.

Parasuramam, S., & Greenhaus, J. H. (1997). The changing world of work and family. In S. Parasuraman & J. H. Greenhaus (Eds.), *Integrating work and family: Challenges and choices for a changing world* (pp. 3-14). Westport, CT: Quorum Books.

Patel, C. J., Govender, V., Paruk, Z., & Ramgoon, S. (2006). Working mothers: Family-work conflict, job performance and family/work variables. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology*, 32(2), 39-45.

Paullay, I. M., Alliger, G. M., & Stone-Romero, E. F. (1994). Construct validation of two instruments designed to measure job involvement and work centrality. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 79, 224-228.

Peacock, D., Khumalo, B., & McNab, E. (2006). Men and gender activism in South Africa: Observations, critique and recommendations for the future. *Agenda Empowering Women for Gender Equality*, 20(6), 71-81.

Perrone, K. M., Wright, S. L., & Jackson, Z. V. (2009). Traditional and nontraditional gender roles and work-family interface for men and women. *Journal of Career Development*, 36(1), 8-24.

Pillay, S., Kluvers, R., Abhayawansa, S., & Vranic, V. (2013). An exploratory study into work/family balance within the Australian higher education sector. *Higher Education Research & Development*, 32(2), 228-243.

Piotrkowski, C. (1979). *Work and the family system*. New York: Free Press.

Pleck, J. H. (1977). The work-family role system. *Social Problems*, 24, 417-427.

Pleck, J. (1985). *Working wives/working husbands*. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.

Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Lee, J. Y., & Podsakoff, N. P. (2003). Common method biases in behavioral research: A critical review of the literature and recommended remedies. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 88, 897-903.

- Powell, G. N., & Greenhaus, J. H. (2010). Sex, gender, and the work-to-family interface: Exploring negative and positive interdependencies. *Academy of Management Journal*, 53(3), 513-534.
- Raes, A. M., Heijltjes, M. G., Glunk, U., & Roe, R. A. (2011). The interface of the top management team and middle managers: A process model. *Academy of Management Review*, 36(1), 102-126.
- Ramadoss, K., & Rajadhyaksha, U. (2012). Gender differences in commitment to roles, work-family conflict and social support. *Journal of Social Science*, 33(2), 227-33.
- Randall, D. M. (1988). Multiple roles and organisational commitment. *Journal of Organisational behaviour*, 9, 309-317.
- Rantanen, J., Kinnunen, U., Feldt, T., & Pulkkinen, L. (2008). Work-family conflict and psychological well-being: Stability and cross-lagged relations within one- and six-year follow-ups. *Journal of Vocational Behaviour*, 73, 37-51.
- Ratele, K. (2008). Studying men in Africa critically. In E. Uchendu, *Masculinities in contemporary Africa* (pp. 18-32). Dakar: CODESRIA.
- Rothbard, N. P. (2001). Enriching or depleting? The dynamics of engagement in work and family roles. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 46, 655-684.
- Rothmann, S., & Rothmann Jr, S. (2010). Factors associated with employee engagement in South Africa. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology*, 36(2), 1-12.
- Salkind, N. S. (2009). *Exploring research* (7th ed.). New Jersey: Pearson International Edition.
- Schuller, K., Roesler, U., & Rau, R. (2014). Self-reported job characteristics and negative spillover from work to private life as mediators between expert-rated job characteristics and vital exhaustion. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 23(2), 177-189.
- Schwarzwald, J., Koslowsky, M., & Izhak-Nir, E. B. (2008). Gender role ideology as a moderator of the relationship between social power tactics and marital satisfaction. *Sex roles*, 59(9-10), 657-669.

- Scott, A. (2012). Paid parental leave as a basic tenet of a child friendly society. *Citizenship and Globalisation Research Papers*, 3(1-6), 39-41.
- Shreffler, K. M., Meadows, M. P., & Davis, K. D. (2011). Fire-fighting and fathering: Work-family conflict, parenting stress, and satisfaction with parenting and child behaviour. *Fathering: A Journal of Theory, Research, and Practice about Men as Fathers*, 9(2), 169-188.
- Sidani, Y. M., & Al Hakim, Z. T. (2012). Work–family conflicts and job attitudes of single women: A developing country perspective. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 23(7), 1376-1393.
- Siu, O. L., Bakker, A. B., Brough, P., Lu, C. Q., Wang, H., Kalliath., ... & Timms, C. (2014). A three-wave study of antecedents of work–family enrichment: The roles of social resources and affect. *Stress and Health*, 30(1), 1-9.
- Somech, A., & Drach-Zahavy, A. (2007). Strategies for coping with work-family conflict: The distinctive relationships of gender role ideology. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 12(1), 1-19.
- Stahl, G. K., Maznevski, M. L., Voigt, A., & Jonsen, K. (2010). Unravelling the effects of cultural diversity in teams: A meta-analysis of research on multicultural work groups. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 41(4), 690-709.
- Staines, G. L. (1980). Spillover verses compensation: A review of the literature on the relationship between work and nonwork. *Human Relations*, 33, 111-129.
- Staines, G. L., Pleck, J. H., Shepard, L. J., & O'Connor, P. (1978). Wives' employment status and marital adjustment: Yet another look. *Psychology of Women Quarterly*, 3(1), 90-120.
- Stangor, C. (2013). *Social groups in action and interaction*. Psychology Press.
- Stickney, L. T., & Konrad, A. M. (2007). Gender-role attitudes and earnings: A multinational study of married women and men. *Sex Roles*, 57(11-12), 801-811.
- Stryker, S. (1968). Identity salience and role performance: The relevance of symbolic interaction theory for family research. *Journal of Marriage and Family*, 30, 558-564.

- Stryker, S., & Serpe, R. T. (1994). Identity salience and psychological centrality: Equivalent, overlapping, or complementary concepts? *Social Psychology Quarterly*, 57(1), 16-35.
- Super, D. E. (1980). A life-span, life-space approach to career development. *Journal of Vocational Behaviour*, 16, 282-298.
- Tabachnick, B. G., & Fidell, L. S. (2007). *Using multivariate statistics* (5th ed.). Boston, Pearson International Edition.
- Tenbrunsel, A. E., Brett, J. M., Maoz, E., Stroh, L. K., & Reilly, A. H. (1995). Dynamic and static work- family relationships. *Organizational Behaviour and Human Decision Processes*, 63, 223–246.
- Thoits, P.A. (1991). On merging identity theory and stress research. *Social Psychology Quarterly*, 54, 101-112.
- Thompson, C. A., Beauvais, L. L., & Allen, T. D. (2006). Work and family from an industrial/organisational psychology perspective. In M. Pitt-Catsoupes, E. E. Kossek, & S. Sweet (Eds.), *The work and family handbook: Multi-disciplinary perspectives and approaches* (pp. 283-307). New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Publishers.
- Treas, J., & Tai, T.O. (2012). Apron strings of working mothers: Maternal employment and housework in cross-national perspective. *Social Science Research*, 41, 833–842.
- Uchendu, E. (2008). Are African males men? Sketching African masculinities. In E. Uchendu, *Masculinities in contemporary Africa* (pp. 1-17). Dakar: CODESRIA.
- Uunk, W., Kalmijn, M., & Muffels, R. (2005). The impact of young children on women's labour supply a reassessment of institutional effects in Europe. *Acta Sociologica*, 48(1), 41-62.
- Van Teijlingen, E. R., & Hundley, V. (2010). The importance of pilot studies. *Social Research Update*, 35, 49-59.
- Voydanoff, P. (2004). The effects of work demands and resources on work-to-family conflict and facilitation. *Journal of Marriage and Family*, 66(2), 398-412.

Walker, L. (2005). Men behaving differently: South African men since 1994. *Culture, Health & Sexuality*, 7(3), 225-238.

Wayne, J. H., Musisca, N., & Fleeson, W. (2004). Considering the role of personality in the work–family experience: Relationships of the big five to work–family conflict and facilitation. *Journal of Vocational Behaviour*, 64(1), 108-130.

Wiley, M.G. (1991). Gender, work and stress: The potential impact of role-identity salience and commitment. *The Sociological Quarterly*, 32(2), 495-510.

Williams, J. C., Blair-Loy, M., & Berdahl, J. L. (2013). Cultural schemas, social class, and the flexibility stigma. *Journal of Social Issues*, 69(2), 209-234.

Yogev, S., & Brett, J. (1985). Patterns of work and family involvement among single-and dual-earner couples. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 70(4), 754-768.

Appendices

Appendix A: Cover letter



UNIVERSITY OF CAPE TOWN
FACULTY OF COMMERCE
Igniting Knowledge and Opportunity



Dear Working father

Thank you for participating in this important research project.

This survey forms part of a larger study on working fathers in South Africa and will contribute to the completion of our Masters' dissertations at the University of Cape Town. We are interested in finding out more about working father's opinions of flexible work arrangements.

The survey is completely anonymous and confidential; it should take no longer than 15 minutes to complete. For every completed submission, R2.00 will be donated to charity. You will select the charity of your choice in the survey.

There are no right or wrong answers and no need to think through any questions, we are looking for your first reaction to each question.

If you have any queries or concerns, please do not hesitate to contact us:

Nikki Steenkamer: steenkamernikki@gmail.com

Dina Manne: dina_manne@hotmail.co.uk

Josh Gelb: joshgelb1@gmail.com

Or our research supervisors are Prof Jeffrey Bagraim (Jeffrey.Bagraim@uct.ac.za) and Ameeta Jaga (Ameeta.Jaga@uct.ac.za)

Thank you!

Kind Regards

Nikki, Dina and Josh.

PLEASE NOTE:

This research has been approved by the Commerce Faculty Ethics in Research Committee at the University of Cape Town. Your participation in this research is voluntary. You can choose to withdraw from the research at any time. This survey is completely anonymous and you are not required to provide your name or contact details. No one will be able to identify who you are. It is confidential and all data generated will be strictly used for academic research purposes.

Appendix B: Body of Electronic Mail

Dear Working Father

This survey forms part of a larger study on working fathers in South Africa and will contribute to the completion of our Masters' dissertations at the University of Cape Town. Permission to send out this survey has been provided by *name of organisation.

Your response will help us to make a valuable contribution to research on working fathers and their circumstances so we really do appreciate your participation. Responses should take approximately 15 minutes to complete. Please remember that all employee responses will be anonymous and confidential and can in no way be traced back to you. For every completed submission we will donate R2 to a charity of your choice

Please click on the link below, which will take you directly to the survey.

https://ucpcommerce.eu.qualtrics.com/SE/?SID=SV_eRsY0xnE1IcJbgh

Thank you

Josh Gelb

Appendix C: Reminder Electronic Mail

Dear Working Father

If you have completed the survey, please accept our thanks. If not, we appeal to you to please do so today.

It is only with your participation that we can fully understand the experiences of working fathers for our research.

Best Wishes

Josh Gelb

Appendix D: Work-Family Conflict Scale

Work-to-Family Conflict Scale

1. The demands of my work interfere with my home and family life.
2. The amount of time my job takes up makes it difficult to fulfil family responsibilities.
3. Things I want to do at home do not get done because of the demands my job puts on me.
4. My job produces strain that makes it difficult to fulfil family duties.
5. Due to work-related duties, I have to make changes to my plans for family activities.

Family-to-Work Conflict Scale

1. The demands of my family or spouse/partner interfere with work-related activities.
2. I have to put off doing things at work because of demands on my time at home.
3. Things I want to do at work don't get done because of the demands of my family or spouse/partner.
4. My home life interferes with my responsibilities at work such as getting to work on time, accomplishing daily tasks, and working overtime.
5. Family-related strain interferes with my ability to perform job-related duties.

Appendix E: Role Centrality Scale

Work Centrality Scale

1. The major satisfaction in my life comes from my work .
2. The most important things that happen to me involve my work.
3. I have other activities more important than my work. (Original item).
 - a. My work-related activities are more important than the other activities in my life. (Reworded item).
4. Overall, I consider work to be very central to my existence.
5. Even if I didn't need the money, I would probably keep working.

Family Centrality Scale

1. The major satisfaction in my life comes from my family.
2. The most important things that happen to me involve my family.
3. My family-related activities are more important than the other activities in my life.
4. Overall, I consider family to be very central to my existence.

Appendix F: Gender Role Ideology Scale

1. A woman's place is in the home, not the office.
2. A wife with a family has no time for outside employment.
3. Employment of wives leads to more juvenile delinquency.
4. It is much better if the man is the achiever outside the home and the woman takes care of the home and family.
5. Women are much happier if they stay home and take care of children.

Appendix G: Normal Probability Plot of Regression Standardised Residuals

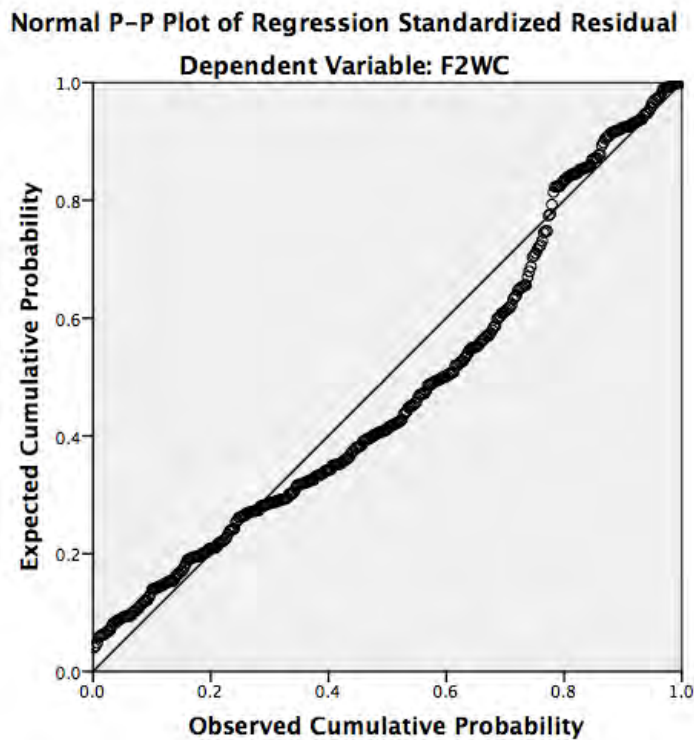


Figure 4. Normal P-P Plot for dependent variable Family-to-Work Conflict

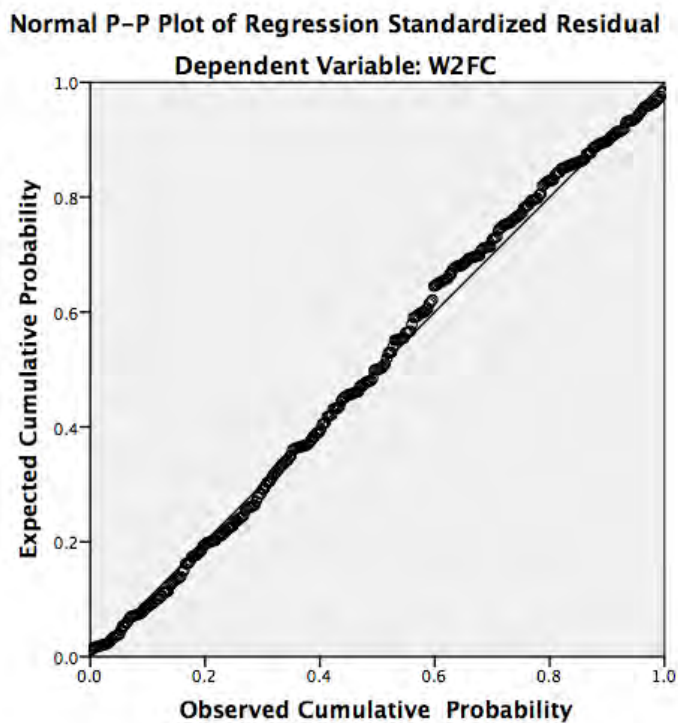


Figure 5. Normal P-P Plot for dependent variable Work-to-Family Conflict